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A CRITICAL STUDY OF THE LEADER BEHAVIOR OF SCHOOL
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BY- CAVE, DAVID RAYMOND
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A STUDY OF 10 SCHOOL DISTRICTS TESTED THE HYPOTHESIS THAT CLASHES BETWEEN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS' UNIONS ARE DUE LARGELY TO THE CONFLICTING PERCEPTIONS OF THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR'S LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AS DESCRIBED BY THE ADMINISTRATOR HIMSELF, BY THE SCHOOL BOARD, AND BY MEMBERS OF THE TEACHERS' UNION. ACCORDING TO THE LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED, RESPONDENTS OF ALL THREE GROUPS DEFINED IDEAL AND REAL ADMINISTRATORS IN SIMILAR TERMS ON A SCALE OF 12 LEADER BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS. BACKGROUND INFORMATION WAS OBTAINED BY INTERVIEWING QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENTS, LABOR MEDIATION BOARD MEMBERS, AND UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS. FOLLOWING HALPIN'S SCHEME FOR MEASURING LEADER BEHAVIOR, QUADRANT ANALYSES INDICATED THAT THE SIX LEADER BEHAVIOR DIMENSIONS CONTRIBUTING MOST TO CONFLICT WERE (1) CONSIDERATION, (2) INITIATION OF STRUCTURE, (3) INTEGRATION, (4) DEMAND RECONCILIATION, (5) TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM, AND (6) PRODUCTION EMPHASIS. CONCEPTS STUDIED WERE DEVELOPED FROM A SURVEY OF LITERATURE RELATED TO LEADERSHIP, CONFLICT, AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION. RECOMMENDATIONS INCLUDED--(1) STUDY OF APPLICABILITY OF THE RESEARCH MODEL FOR USE IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, (2) EVALUATION OF PROCEDURES FOR SELECTION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS WITH RESPECT TO EACH SCHOOL'S ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, AND (3) DEVELOPMENT OF ADEQUATE PROGRAMS FOR TRAINING ADMINISTRATORS, WITH GREATER EMPHASIS ON THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES. (JK)

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A Critical Study of the Leader Behavior of School Administrators in Conflict with Teachers' Unions

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ABSTRACT

A CRITICAL STUDY OF THE LEADER BEHAVIOR OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN CONFLICT WITH TEACHERS' UNIONS

by David Raymond Cave

Purpose of the study. Since the Michigan legislature passed a law establishing the right of employees in the public sector to organize for the purpose of engaging in collective negotiations or bargaining with their employers, many cases of conflict have occurred between school administrators and teachers' unions. The image of public education has suffered immeasurable damage due to those severe conflicts which have already taken place within the brief history of collective negotiations between school administrators and teachers' unions. This situation prompted the need for a critical study of some of the factors contributing to the conflict. One factor was felt to be the leader behavior of school administrators. This research examines the present-day educational leader from several vantage points as he works and lives in situations of conflict with the opposing teachers' union.

A major objective of this research was to identify those leader behavior dimensions which contribute to the presence of

conflict. A second objective was to draw from the data recommendations designed to reduce dysfunctional conflict.

Methodology. News media helped to identify school districts in the state of Michigan in which there was conflict between school administrators and the teachers' union. Letters were sent to the administrators in conflict districts requesting their cooperation in the research. One district was selected to serve as a pretest of the questionnaire and the interview procedure.

Ten administrators undergoing conflict were selected to study. School board members, teachers' union representatives, and the school administrator himself were asked to describe the leader behavior of an ideal administrator by means of a Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. They were asked to respond again to the questionnaire to describe the type of leader behavior practiced by their administrator. Real scale scores were subtracted from the corresponding ideal scale scores to create "D" (difference) scores. By this means a measure was obtained of the difference between every respondent's concept of an ideal administrator and his perception of his administrator. Statistical treatment of the data using analysis of variance established the significance of the scale scores

over twelve dimensions of leader behavior. Interviews established some of the personal problems associated with the school administrator's leader behavior and provided additional data which could not be drawn from the questionnaire.

Conclusions. Analysis of the data established that school administrators, school board members, and teachers' union representatives similarly described the ideal leader behavior an administrator should practice. This finding indicates that there is an excellent opportunity for resolving differences providing administrators are able to change their real leader behavior nearer to the ideal description as given by each of the three groups. Analysis of the data established that at the present time the leader behavior of administrators is in fact contributing to the presence of conflict with teachers' unions. Those leader behavior dimensions which were determined by quadrant analysis to be contributing the most to conflict were (1) consideration, (2) initiation of structure, (3) integration, (4) demand reconciliation, (5) tolerance of freedom, and (6) production emphasis. Improvement in these leader behavior dimensions is essential before conflict can be satisfactorily resolved.

The research indicated that administrators are deficient in their knowledge and understanding of the behavioral sciences and the theories and techniques of conflict resolution. Appraisal of the traditional professional training programs for administrators in light of the research findings pointed up the need for a critical re-examination of the curriculum and techniques for training administrators.

Final Report

of

Small Contract Branch Project 6-8358

entitled

A CRITICAL STUDY OF THE LEADER BEHAVIOR OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN CONFLICT WITH TEACHERS' UNIONS

David Raymond Cave
Project Director

Archibald Shaw
University Sponsor

Office of Research and Publications

College of Education

Michigan State University

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"THE CLASH OF DOCTRINES IS NOT A DISASTER,
IT IS AN OPPORTUNITY."

Alfred North Whitehead
Science and the Modern World

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PART ONE

RESEARCH AND FINDINGS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introductory Statement

In recent months news media in the state of Michigan have reported case after case of conflict between school administrators and teachers' groups. This condition has been brought into focus as a result of legislation enacted in 1965 giving employees in the public sector the right "to organize together or to form, join or assist in labor organizations"[1] for the purpose of selecting a "collective negotiation or bargaining representative"[2] who shall be the "exclusive representative of all the public employees"[3] of a bargaining unit.

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[1] Arthur H. Rice, Jr. (ed.), "Legal Tools for Educators--Acts 282 and 379," Michigan Education Journal, XLIII (October 1, 1965), 3.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

Since the enactment of Public Act 379, Michigan has witnessed a seething turmoil of conflict in the public schools in proportions never experienced before.

Professor Clyde Campbell wrote in the November, 1965, issue of The Community School and Its Administration that the new climate of school administration may "rock the theory of educational leadership to its foundations."[1] The fact that this development may rock the theory of educational leadership becomes the rationale for research concerning the behavior of school administrators in conflict with teachers' unions.

Examples of the Types of Conflict

Examples of the types of conflict that school administrators are being confronted with, resulting from teacher militancy, have been compiled and are illustrated by the following descriptions of a hypothetical locale, Schooltown.

Since the passing of Public Act 379, teachers in Schooltown have been forming into two groups. The first group organized as a chapter of the Michigan Education Association. The second group organized within the school system is a local of the Michigan Federation of Teachers. It is an observable fact that these two groups are in opposition to each other. The ensuing struggle to win the representation rights for the teachers has often been heated and acrimonious. Each group has sought to convince the teachers that it alone can win increased salaries, better working conditions, more fringe benefits, a voice in running the schools, and so forth.

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[1] Clyde Campbell (ed.), "Through Storms We Grow," The Community School and Its Administration, IV (November, 1965).

Throughout the campaign, school administrators have been cast as one of the major hindrances to teachers gaining all of their rights. In order to establish who shall represent the teachers in negotiations or bargaining, the Labor Mediation Board (commonly referred to as the LMB) is petitioned to conduct elections allowing teachers to state their preference of organization, either the MEA chapter or the AFT local. However, before the election takes place, charges of unfair labor practices are lodged by the union with the LMB against the school superintendent. He is charged specifically with: (1) interfering with, restraining, or coercing public employees in the formation or administration of a labor organization; (2) initiating, creating, dominating, contributing to, or interfering with the formation or administration of a labor organization; (3) discrimination in employment or conditions of employment to encourage or discourage membership in a labor organization; (4) discrimination against an employee because he has given testimony or instituted proceedings under the provisions of the act; (5) refusal to bargain or negotiate with employees.

The LMB, upon receipt of the filed charges, schedules a hearing date at which time the accuser and the accused present their cases. During the course of the hearings, attorneys represent the school administrator, the teachers' union, and the rival teachers' association. Charges and countercharges are made and records of the school district are carefully examined to try to substantiate the many claims of both sides.

The hearings officer of the LMB, after careful examination of the issues, decides that the administration was in error on some of the charges and issues a directive to the administrator to cease and desist from: (1) interfering with the organizing and administration of teacher groups either directly or indirectly through their supervisors and executives; (2) participating in elections, attending internal business and/or labor relations meetings of the teachers' groups or engaging in any other activity on behalf of the group; (3) requiring as a condition of employment for a teacher to join or embrace a code of ethics as established by a national organization;

(4) using coercion or restraining teachers in the exercise of their right to self-organization.

Upon completion of the hearings, the LMB is petitioned to hold elections. The terms, methods, and procedures are established and the election is held. After the LMB certifies the organization that is to be the sole representative of the teachers, the process of collective bargaining begins.[1] The meetings are opened and a list of demands is presented by the union to the administrator, who is the chief negotiator for the school board. The administrator and his staff study the demands and he in turn has a meeting with the school board. At this meeting he presents to the board the collective thoughts of his staff and himself concerning union demands.

An evaluation is made by the school board and a position is established about which demands are unacceptable to the board and which are acceptable. The administrator again meets with the union and the give-and-take sessions begin. After many hours of hard bargaining by both sides, most of the issues are resolved. Neither side appears to be willing to compromise on the unsettled issues, and each declares the "rightness" of his position. The union then threatens to strike.[1] The administrator, acting as the agent of the board, makes several references to the law forbidding public employees to strike, and the union representatives counter with statements about the legitimacy of the practice of civil disobedience when laws are wrong. During the ensuing days further attempts are made to reconcile the differences, but to no avail. The union posts pickets and the strike has become an actuality.

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[1] Because this research involves locals of the Michigan Federation of Teachers, the union term "collective bargaining" is used rather than "professional negotiations" or "collective negotiations." In educational journals, newspapers, and other forms of reporting any one of the three terms may be used, depending on the organizational bias. Each of the three terms, however, is intended to describe the same process. The hybrid term "collective negotiations" coined as the theme for the first conference held on the subject at Rhode Island College in July, 1965, is preferred.

The administrator issues a statement to the effect that no further talking will take place until the strikers return to their classrooms. Several days elapse, with both sides issuing statements intended to gain support for their position. It appears at this time that the situation in Schooltown has reached a stalemate.

Meetings are called on the state level by the governor, and public concern is voiced. The union agrees to withdraw the pickets and call off the strike after the administrator has set a time and date to reopen negotiations.

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[1] The law of the state of Michigan specifically forbids strikes by employees in the public sector. The law is commonly referred to as the Hutchinson Act. For a complete text of the law see Michigan Statutes Annotated, paragraph 17,455 (2).

Each side reviews its previous position and takes a modified proposal into the meeting. After many long and tedious sessions, an agreement is reached and a contract is signed. Both sides take pride in the resolving of differences. Harmony is restored, at least on the surface. The remaining task is the day-to-day implementation of the contract, which is now binding on both sides. The cycle, except for minor skirmishes related to contract interpretation, is now completed.

The foregoing description is a greatly simplified compilation of many examples of the collective bargaining processes as they have happened in Michigan.

The conflict brought out into the open, for the first time, long-pent-up hostilities on the part of the teachers. Whether these hostilities would have found other outlets had PA 379 not been adopted is problematical. The fact is, however, that the hostility and militancy present in the administrator-teacher organization relationships has manifested itself to be of major importance and concern.

Dr. Campbell, in the article previously mentioned, quoted typical reactions to the new climate of administrator relations.

> Urban Administrator: "When I walked in to negotiate I discovered I was dealing with angry people."[1]

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[1] Campbell, loc. cit.

The question that this administrator might have asked himself is why they were angry. Is it just possible that the anger has been there all along and that PA 379 has merely removed some of the teachers' fear of expressing it?

> Labor Relations Professor: "The day of the administrator wearing two hats is over. He simply cannot be the executive officer of the board of education and be the educational leader of the faculty at the same time."[1]

It is rather difficult to agree or disagree with this opinion at this point. The professor is obviously drawing his inferences from his experiences in the private or industrialized sector of labor relations.

Up till now, public education has not had the experience with collective negotiations from which a conceptual framework could be established. For this reason, educational administrators and teachers' groups might well be cautious about adopting practices developed from industrial labor relations experience.

> School Administrator: "The legislature just can't do this to us."[2]

The fact remains that the legislature did pass PA 379 and the administrator, along with many of his colleagues, must now face reality and discover how he can efficiently and rationally function within this new frame of reference.

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Ibid.

> College Professor: (prior to adoption of PA 379) "Just relax. It's all going down the drain."[1]

It is not difficult to see why, at this point at least, school administrators entered the field of collective negotiations somewhat ill prepared. At the first threat to their administration it is not unusual that immediate reaction was self-defense. Previous practices and administrative behavior had to be justified, if not to others at least to themselves. The present situation regarding the administrators' role in collective negotiations and personnel relations has not progressed much beyond that which has been described. It is true that administrators have learned some of the catch phrases and procedural techniques of participation in the joint meetings with teacher organizations but they have not as yet approached the area where the real solution to the present dilemma will be found. That area, on which this research will focus, concerns their behavior as educational administrators.

The title of Dr. Campbell's article was "Through Storms We Grow." The title was deliberately omittted earlier in this introduction because the phrase "if we survive" seemed to be an appropriate addition. Without the practice of enlightened administrative behavioral techniques the new climate of teacher militancy will set the stage for hostilities of far-reaching proportions.

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[1] Ibid.

This research examines the present-day educational leader from several vantage points as he works and lives in situations of conflict with the opposing teachers' union. It has been said that there is a great difference between being a leader and merely being in the position of a leader. School administrators have been described by others and have regarded themselves as leaders of their school systems. It is hoped that this critical study of leader behavior will provide an insight into the problems now being faced and will offer recommendations designed to guide administrators into more effective leadership roles.

Basic Hypothesis

The basic hypothesis of this research is that clashes between school administrators and teachers' unions are due, in large part, to the conflicting perceptions of the school administrator's leader behavior as described by the administrator himself, by the school board and by members of the teachers' union. It is expected that there will be significant differences in how the actual leader behavior of the administrator is perceived by (1) the administrator himself, (2) his school board, and (3) representatives of the teachers' union. How an administrator should behave, as perceived by the three groups, will provide a measure of control. The difference between a description of an ideal leader behavior and a description of the perceived or real behavior of the administrator will be an accurate measure of the administrator's true leader behavior.

Earlier research suggested that descriptions of a leader's behavior secured from board and staff can be used as an intermediate criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of an administrator's behavior. The present hypothesis, it would seem, could refine the evaluation even further by taking into account the respondent's level of expectation. If the level of expectation is not high the leader behavior required to meet the level, whatever it may be, would be considerably less.

Specific Hypotheses

The specific hypotheses to be tested are:

1. School administrators, school board members, and teachers' union representatives will tend to agree in their descriptions of what constitutes ideal leader behavior of an administrator.

2. School administrators and school board members will tend to disagree with teachers' union representatives on their descriptions of an administrator.

3. Teachers' union representatives will describe their administrator's leader behavior as being less effective than will either the administrator or school board members.

4. School board members' descriptions of the leader behavior of their administrator will tend to be the same as the descriptions they will give of the ideal leader behavior of an administrator.

5. School board members will tend to describe the leader behavior of their school administrator as being more effective than the administrator will describe his own leader behavior.

Importance of the Study

The image of public education has suffered immeasurable damage due to those severe conflicts which have already taken place within the brief history of collective negotiations. To date, the alignment of the adversaries has in most cases been in diametrical opposition.

The professional school administrator is hired by a school board to administer the affairs of the school district and to carry out any and all policies adopted by them. However, in the typical educational organizational structure the administrator usually finds himself trying to play the role of the middleman between the professional staff and the school board. If his behavior is such that his major alignment is with the school board he is likely to alienate the professional staff. If, on the other hand, he becomes associated mainly with the teachers he is looked upon with disfavor by the school board. A crucial problem confronting school administrators involved in the throes of the new era of collective negotiations is how they may establish appropriate behavioral patterns which will satisfy the expectations of both school boards and teachers' organizations. Failure of the administrator to accomplish this task brings about conflict with one or the other of these reference groups.

To the degree that a school administrator is able to establish a behavioral pattern which is acceptable to both the school board and the teachers' organization the presence of conflict will be minimal. The study of the present crisis is important to the field of school administration in order that the factors relating to leader behavior in the interpersonal relationships with teachers' unions might be isolated. If behavioral patterns contributing to conflict can be identified, recommendations may be drawn to indicate which forms or styles of leader behavior increase the probability of conflict.

Scope and Limitations

This study is an attempt to identify the leader behavior of school administrators who are involved in conflict with teachers' unions. Strikes, sit-ins, picketing, the filing of formal charges, the threat to file charges, conflict over salaries and working conditions, or reports of conflict made in the news media--these are signs of conflict within a school district. The school administrator of such a district therefore becomes an appropriate subject to study.

The basic test instrument was a leader behavior description questionnaire which was administered to school board members, teachers' union representatives, and school administrators. The data collected were limited to the respondents' answers to the questionnaire and open-end interviews.

Geographically the study was conducted in school districts within the state of Michigan and limited to those districts which have been identified as having the element of conflict between the administrator and the teachers' union.

Procedures and Techniques Used

Periodicals, past research, and books germane to the problem were reviewed. Personal contact with school boards, school administrators, and teachers' union officials was made to garner background information. The National Institute on Collective Negotiations held at Rhode Island College under the sponsorship of the Phi Delta Kappa professional fraternity during the summer of 1965 was attended to get an overview of the problem of conflict between administrators and the teachers' union on a national level. A visit was also made to the University of Chicago to meet with researchers who are currently making a study entitled "Collective Action by Public School Teachers." This contact served to bring the researcher up to date on the progress being made in this field of study.

The technique used for gathering the data was the administration of the questionnaires which were designed to elicit from respondents their descriptions of the leader behavior of a particular school administrator. The instrument used is a refinement by Ralph M. Stogdill of a questionnaire first developed by Andrew Halpin and used in his study of fifty school superintendents. The instrument is called "The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire" and is referred to in this study as the LBDQ.

The LBDQ was designed to measure twelve specific dimensions of leader behavior. These dimensions are as follows:

1. Representation--speaks and acts as the representative of the group (5 items).
2. Demand reconciliation--reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system (5 items).
3. Tolerance of uncertainty--is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset (10 items).
4. Persuasiveness--uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions (10 items).
5. Initiation of structure--clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected (10 items).
6. Tolerance of freedom--allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action (10 items).
7. Role assumption--actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others (10 items).
8. Consideration--regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers (10 items).
9. Production emphasis--applies pressure for productive output (10 items).
10. Predictive accuracy--exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately (5 items).
11. Integration--maintains a closely knit organization; resolves intermember conflicts (5 items).
12. Superior orientation--maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status (10 items).

The LBDQ was administered to three groups: school administrators, school board members, and teachers' union representatives. The questionnaire was given twice. The items were identical for both forms. However, in the first form the questionnaire measured the respondent's opinion as to how he conceives the administrator should behave. This form is designated as the LBDQ-Ideal. The second time that the questionnaire was administered the purpose was to measure the respondent's opinion as to the frequency with which the administrator engages in specific forms of leader behavior. This form is designated as LBDQ-Real. A total of twenty-four subscale scores were obtained from each respondent. Statistical treatment of the data determined the significance of the respondent's conception of the LBDQ-Ideal as related to the LBDQ-Real. Inferences based on the statistical analysis of the questionnaires provided a description of the forms or styles which are contributing to the presence of conflict.

The general design which enabled a triangulation analysis between school administrators, teachers' union representatives, and school board members appeared to be particularly appropriate for achieving the objectives of the study. The use of the LBDQ was limited in this research to school administrators involved in conflict with the teachers' union. This approach permitted an analysis of a specific segment of the overall leader behavior dimension.

Definition of Terms

Conflict--a disruption of the normal and harmonious functioning of a school system which is attributable to a breakdown in the personnel relations between the administrator and the teachers' union.

LBDQ--Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Form XII, Revised).

LBDQ-Ideal--indication by teachers' union representatives, school board respondents, and administrators of the frequency with which the administrator should behave in specific forms of leader behavior.

LBDQ-Real--indication by teachers' union representatives, school board respondents, and administrators of the frequency with which the administrator engages in specific forms of leader behavior.

LMB--Labor Mediation Board, the legally instituted agency of the state of Michigan responsible for enforcement of the Labor Mediation Act and the Public Employees Act. It is authorized to determine employee bargaining units, investigate unfair labor practices, issue cease-and-desist orders, provide mediation services, and engage in fact-finding.

School administrator--chief executive officer appointed by the school board for the purpose of carrying out school board policies through an administrative office or position.

Teachers' union--AFL-CIO affiliate AFT (American Federation of Teachers); throughout this study it will be referred to as the union.

Teachers' union representative--any elected officer of a local of the Michigan Federation of Teachers who played an active role in the union during the time that the conflict occurred.

Summary

Since the Michigan legislature passed a law enabling employees in the public sector to organize for the purpose of engaging in collective negotiations or bargaining with their employers, there have been many cases of conflict developing between school administrators and teachers' unions. Some of the conflict has been as a result of the power struggle between the rival National Education Association affiliates and locals of the American Federation of Teachers. Much of the conflict, however, has been directly attributed to the leader behavior of the school administrator. The LMB has often been asked to assist in resolving the disputes.

The basic hypothesis of this research is that clashes between school administrators and teachers' unions are due, in large part, to the conflicting perceptions of the school administrator's leader behavior, as described by the administrator himself, by the school board, and by members of the teachers' union.

Many incidents of conflict between administrators and teachers' unions have caused immeasurable damage to the image of public education. If behavioral patterns can be identified, recommendations may be drawn to indicate which forms of leader behavior increase the probability of conflict. The study was limited to school districts in Michigan in which there was conflict between school administrators and teachers' unions.

The test instrument was a leader behavior description questionnaire designed to elicit from the respondents their descriptions about a particular school administrator and also their descriptions of an ideal administrator's behavior. Twelve dimensions of leader behavior are defined by the questionnaire. A triangulation analysis of the data was planned between the three groups.

Definitions of the terms used throughout the research were given.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Leadership

The history of mankind has been punctuated with the exploits and deeds of men who have occupied positions of leadership. Some men arrived at their positions by inheritance, others by circumstance, and still others by careful planning. Leadership may be of the direct, face-to-face, or indirect type. The indirect type of leadership functions primarily through the intermediary actions of others who are in subservient positions to that of the leader.

In actual practice, leadership tends to utilize a combination of the two types; i.e., at times the leader will act and interact on a face-to-face basis and at other times he will function through intermediaries. The more complex the organization, the greater the possibility for relying on the latter type.

In this study of the leadership behavior of school administrators involved in conflict with teachers' groups the focus is primarily on the face-to-face type of leadership activity.

The earliest information concerning leadership is based upon the writings of Plato.[1] Plato, in Book VII of his Republic, detailed how a leader was to be selected and trained. In the preliminary stages the requirements were that the young man or woman must be brave, noble, and keen of intellect. He had to demonstrate his capacity for memorization, display even temperament, be magnanimous, and be of sound mind and body. Throughout his life the training continued with alternate periods of formal training and practical experience in the world's work. As the trainees progressed through the rigorous ordeals, some were eliminated for various ineptitudes. After the trainee reached the age of fifty years he concentrated on philosophy and was expected to devote some of his time and energy to the government of the state. For all of Plato's concentration on the development of leaders, it is interesting to note that no attention was devoted to the concept of followership.

Another early author who wrote about leadership was Niccolo Machiavelli. Machiavelli was chancellor in the Republic of Florence from 1494 to 1512 and as chancellor he had the opportunity to observe the prominent leaders of that time. Based on his personal observations Machiavelli wrote a volume called De Principatibus or, as it is more commonly titled, The Prince.[1] In this work he set forth the principles for the governing of a principality. The essential purpose of his work was to provide a ruler of men with the techniques for acquiring and maintaining control of a principality. Machiavelli essentially recommended a code of behavior a prince should follow. While the work of Machiavelli is of significant interest to the study of early leadership concepts, its value remains mostly historical.

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[1] B. Jowett (trans.), Plato's The Republic (New York: The Modern Library).

Leadership research is a relatively modern development. One of the first attempts to study leadership is credited to the French psychologist Alfred Binet.[2] He sought to separate school children into groups of leaders or followers. His research, while of limited value, did serve as a starting point for further research into the phenomenon of leadership.

Lewis M. Terman became interested in the earlier work of Binet and decided to repeat the experiment using a larger sample and more sophisticated research techniques.[1] He used one hundred pupils in the Bloomington, Indiana, public schools. His objective was to discover those pupils who were leaders and those who were automatons. A set of twenty-three questions were asked which had eleven catch questions. The catch questions asked had no relation to the pupils' previous exposure to cards containing pictures and objects. The pupils were told that they were participating in a test of memory. They were then asked to view the cards for ten seconds and to respond to the questions asked. The responses to the catch questions were designed to determine the susceptibility to suggestions. The original groups were then broken up to form new groups, each with one pupil who had shown himself to be a leader and one who had distinguished himself as an automaton in the previous test. A new set of pictures and a new set of twenty-three questions were administered to the groups. The results enabled the researcher to establish whether the rank established by the pupil in the first test had a wholly relative or absolute meaning. Terman's experiment established the following results:

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[1] Niccolo Machiavelli, The Prince, trans. W. K. Marriott (New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1908).

[2] A. Binet, La Suggestibilite (abridged from the article in Pedagogical Seminary, II [1905], 413-51).

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[1] L. M. Terman, "A Preliminary Study of the Psychology and Pedagogy of Leadership," Small Groups, ed. Paul Hare et al. (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1955).

1. A large number maintain a well defined rank either as first or last in the groups.
2. The leaders in the tests were twice as often mentioned by the teachers as being leaders, and further were chosen 4-1/2 times as often by their mates as ideals.
3. Suggestibility, as measured by these tests, rises from the second to the fourth grade and then falls rapidly in the succeeding grades. The naivete with which the smallest children gave correct answers to the catch questions was remarkable. . . .
4. The pupils show marked choice in imitating the answers of others. Circumstances favor the quickest, but not always are these the most imitated.
5. The leaders have a high average suggestibility. . . .
6. The group rank of the many pupils in the second series was radically different from what it had been in the first. . . .
7. The leaders in the tests, according to the testimony of their teachers, are on the average larger, better dressed, of more prominent parentage, brighter, more noted for daring, more fluent of speech, better looking, greater readers, less emotional and less selfish than the automatons.
8. As regards the reasons given by the pupils for choosing certain of their schoolmates for ideals, intelligence increases in importance rapidly from the second to the eighth grade and goodness as rapidly falls.
9. According to the opinion of the teachers, such pupils are preferred most often for the following qualities, given in order of their importance: intelligence, congeniality, liveliness, and goodness.
10. The data were not suited to bring out race differences in the qualities of leadership.[1]

So far leadership has been examined as the product of a more or less casual observation on the part of Machiavelli and leadership as the result of the early experimental endeavor of Binet and Terman. While Machiavelli tended to view leadership as something above and beyond the confines of the structure of the group, Binet and Terman in their research sought to find in leaders a set of personality traits that would tend to be true under varying situations.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 29-30.

Sigmund Freud viewed groups as being composed of individuals each possessing his own biopsychic drive.[1] The environment within which the organism functions also plays an interacting role and serves to condition the resulting mental phenomena. As an individual relates to and internalizes the external stimulus, the resulting behavior represents the equalizing of the inner drives and needs as weighed against the inhibitory forces. From Freud's point of view the individual's behavior and the behavior of a group are directly related. Freud does not, in his theory, allow for the emergence from a group a by-product greater than the individual components or in other words the emergence of a group mind. According to Freud, individuals are by-products of family living so they tend to exhibit attitudes and behavioral patterns learned in the primary groups whenever they transfer into new groups. Groups, therefore, take on many of the characteristics of a family. Group members tend to transfer the father image to the group leader. One might, using Freud's theory, hypothesize that the success of a leader depends upon his ability to accurately sense the primary needs of the individual group members and to transfer this sensitivity into an appropriate behavioral pattern.

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[1] Saul Scheidlinger, "Freudian Concepts of Group Relations," Group Dynamics, ed. D. Cartwright and A. Zander (New York: Row, Peterson and Co., 1953).

In Freud's concept a leader is a person around whom the group formative process crystalizes.

Until about 1925 most of the work in group dynamics and the study of leadership was carried out speculatively. Using many of Freud's theories as a springboard, other theorists broadened the spectrum. Cooley[1] and Simmel[2] are best known for their studies of small groups. Cooley recognized the importance of an individual's belonging to a group and that individuals in a modern society were products of multiple-group memberships.

Smith and Krueger[3] reviewed the literature available on leadership in 1933. Their research is significant to the study of leadership in that they established that in group interaction size becomes a significant determining factor.

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[1] C. H. Cooley, Social Organization (New York: Scribner, 1909).

[2] Kurt H. Wolff, The Sociology of Georg Simmel (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1950).

[3] H. L. Smith and L. M. Krueger, A Brief Summary of Literature on Leadership (Bloomington: Indiana University, Bureau of Cooperative Research, 1933).

Jenkins also reviewed leadership studies, with particular reference to military problems. He divided the various studies into five groups. These groups were: (1) industrial and governmental investigations, including studies of executives, administrators, supervisors, foremen, etc.; (2) studies of scientific and professional personnel; (3) investigations of the activities of children in preschool and extraschool situations; (4) studies in the school situation; (5) military leadership.

Jenkins determined that "no single trait or group of characteristics has been isolated which sets off the leader from the members of his group."[1] He also noted that progress had not been made in the development of "criteria of leadership behavior nor in the setting-up of an adequate working definition of the concept to guide research in the isolating of leadership traits."[2]

After reviewing leadership studies, Jenkins concluded that "the situation does not appear to be a particularly happy one with regard to deriving of general principles or of setting up a systematic theory of leadership from available information."[1]

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[1] William Jenkins, A Review of Leadership Studies with Particular Reference to Military Problems ("AAF Aviation Psychology Abstract Series," No. 190; September 20, 1945), pp. 74-75.

[2] Ibid., p. 75.

To answer the question, "What is leadership?" Raymond Cattell[2] examined the evidence which established that leadership exists and by what means it can be measured. He measured leadership in the context of what he called "group syntality"; i.e., a "final" performance of the group as a group. Other terms he used are "structure" and "population." By the use of the term "structure" he means "all that goes under the heading of internal organization i.e., the relationships extracted from the immediate observations of interactional behavior." Cattell believed that until we have the foundation to discuss group phenomena it is impossible to make meaningful measurements concerning leadership. At this point both psychologists and sociologists had not established this base.

Cattell contended that the assessment of leadership should, as much as is possible, be based upon syntality and upon structural observations when the former is impossible. A leader, according to

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Raymond B. Cattell, "New Concepts for Measuring Leadership, in Terms of Group Syntality," Human Relations, IV (1951), 161-84.

Cattel, is defined as a person who has demonstrable influence upon group syntality. Leadership is, therefore, measured by the magnitude of the syntality change (from the mean) produced by that person. One of the most important concepts regarding leadership in Cattell's thesis is that leadership cannot always be thought of in terms of the person occupying a formalized leader position. This point is relevant to our present study of the challenge of the institutionalized position of the leadership role held by school administrators. Using Cattell's construct, it would appear that the present challenge from teachers' unions to the school administrators' institutionalized leadership position will ultimately modify the syntality of the group.

How one defines a group and the membership in it places certain limits on the theoretical conceptual frame. For example, Robert F. Bales defines a group as "any number of persons engaged in interaction with one another in a single face-to-face meeting or a series of such meetings in which each member receives some impression or perception of each other member distinct enough so that he can, either at the time or in later questioning give some reaction to each of the others as an individual person, even though it be only to recall that the other was present."[1] According to this definition the present study of the interaction of school administrators and teachers' union representatives would constitute a group study.

In order to study social interaction, according to Bales, it is also necessary to take into account the situation in which the social interaction occurs.[2] All actions are deemed to be interactions. Another dimension which is important to this conceptual scheme is the dimension time. As the actors in any given situation are relating to the stimulus there is a degree of complexity introduced which is the result of the interplay and modification of behavior. Because the interaction of group members is always relative to the problem at hand it is to the individual's advantage to establish a reciprocal behavioral pattern with other group members which will tend to stabilize the situation and allow for a degree of predictability.

A concluding thought about Bales's theory is that the individual as an actor in any given situation finds himself in a most complex relationship. As the group interacts through the dimension of time, change is taking place. What is true for any given situation may not be true for another. This is also true for the concept of leadership. Even though an actor has a formalized position of leadership the situation may necessitate that he submit to the control of another who previously was in a subordinate role.

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[1] Robert F. Bales, "A Theoretical Framework for Interaction Process Analysis," Group Dynamics, ed. Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (New York: Row, Peterson and Co., 1953), p. 30.

[2] Ibid.

A review of the literature pertaining to the personal factors associated with leadership was conducted by Ralph M. Stogdill. He pointed out that "in many of the studies surveyed, leadership was not defined. In others, the methods used in the investigation appeared to have little relationship to the problem as stated."[1]

In attempting to identify the personal characteristics of leaders the following research techniques have been used:

1. Observation of behavior in group situations.
2. Choice of associates (voting). Often referred to as peer nomination.
3. Nomination or rating by qualified observers.
4. Selection (and rating or testing) of persons occupying positions of leadership.
5. Analysis of biographical and case history data.[2]

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[1] Ralph M. Stogdill, Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature (Provincetown, Mass., 1947), p. 35.

[2] Ibid., p. 36.

Leadership as a Possession of Personality Traits

Most of the traditional studies of leadership were focused on a search for the unique and universal traits of leaders. The common concept of leaders was that they were something apart from the mainstream of humanity. Leaders were thought to be possessors of inborn qualities that brought them to their positions of leadership. It was in this context that the "great man" theory of leadership evolved.

Many management consulting firms used trait analysis of individuals in order to recommend promotions through the restricted positions of leadership within the industrial setting. The consulting firm of Booz, Allen and Hamilton, however, after making a detailed analysis of appraisal forms that they had compiled on over fourteen hundred executives, could find only eight executive characteristics that "seemed to distinguish the promotable men from the non-promotable."[1]

The Harvard Graduate School gave extensive tests to 150 graduate students and then followed their careers in the business world. The object was to see if forecasts of an individual's performance would be possible. The research was not able to accurately identify the "men of promise."[1]

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[1] C. Wilson Randle, "How to Identify Promotable Executives," Harvard Business Review, May-June, 1956.

In a round table discussion at Columbia's Graduate School of Business,[2] one panelist stated that leadership could be spotted by the fifth grade in school when boys congregate around one particular boy. Another panelist, a psychiatrist, said the onset of adolescence can have a tremendous impact in altering personality in unpredictable ways.

The trait approach to leader identification slowly, but not completely, gave way to the situational approach to leadership. The situational approach to leadership study is more concerned with the particular functions performed by leaders than any unique or universal traits.

Within a formal organization, such as a school system, the school administrator will perform certain categories of tasks rather than display common traits of personality. Decision-making will be confined, for example, within the determination or organizational constraints and expectations. Leadership in the formal organization can be analyzed, according to Bavelas,[1] by the functions that must be performed rather than who performs them.

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[1] Vance Packard, The Pyramid Climbers (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1962), p. 151.

[2] Ibid., p. 154.

In the present study there is an interaction of an emergent type of leadership, as characterized by the teachers' union representatives, and the formal-type leadership as characterized by the school administrator. In the first case the leader has moved to the forefront by the popular consent of his core of followers. The school administrator, on the other hand, is in the position of being an imposed leader; i.e., hired by the school board. The problem that has developed is that the allegiance to the imposed leader is moderating toward the emergent leader. Whether or not this shift will have any permanence, only time will tell.

The early work of Kurt Lewin and J. L. Moreno[2] in studying leadership as a phenomenon of groups laid the foundation upon which the Ohio State University leadership studies were started. Leadership has been studied in relation to group organization. One of the crucial aspects to the study of leadership was to establish a working definition of what it is. Leadership was defined for the Ohio State University studies as follows: "Leadership may be considered as the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement."[1] A leader by definition, then, is one who becomes or is differentiated from the other members in the group. When a group differentiates between the responsibilities of its members the group has become an organization.

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[1] Alex Bavelas, "Communication Patterns in Task-oriented Groups," Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, XXII (1950), 725-30.

[2] Ralph M. Stogdill, "Leadership, Membership and Organization," Group Dynamics, ed. D. Cartwright et al. (New York: Row, Peterson and Co., 1953), p. 39.

The advantages of studying leadership in terms of influence upon activities of the organization, rather than in terms of influence upon persons, are, according to Stogdill, as follows:

> 1. Leadership is removed from the broad, vaguely defined realm of social interaction in general, and integrates it with the basic variables which describe an organized group.
> 2. It suggests the development of methods for studying leadership as an aspect of work performance, work methods and working relationships.[2]

With this foundation the Ohio State University leadership studies embarked into the study of leadership. It is out of these studies that Hemphill[3] originated what has come to be known as the

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[1] Ibid., p. 41.

[2] Ibid., p. 50.

[3] John Hemphill, "Leader Behavior Associated with the Administrative Reputations of College Departments," Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement (Research Monograph 86, Ohio State University, 1957), p. 74.

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire has been administered to study leaders in military, industrial, government, educational, and civilian groups and organizations. As the LBDQ went through successive trials, adaptations and revisions were made.

Melvin Seeman[1] studied school systems using the LBDQ. In the original questionnaire there were 150 items to which the respondent applied a five-point scale. Andrew Halpin and B. James Winer,[2] in a factoral study of Seeman's data, developed factor scores titled "consideration" and "initiating structure." Using these two measures Halpin administered the LBDQ to fifty educational administrators. Teachers and school board members also described the administrators. Halpin's findings indicated "that the superintendents differentiate their role behavior. In dealing with their boards they tend to be effective as leaders, but they are inclined to be less effective in working with their staffs."[3]

Seeman, commenting on Halpin's findings, brings up an interesting point. He says:

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[1] Ibid., p. 86.

[2] Ibid., p. 39.

[3] Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1966), p. 118.

> There is a good deal of credibility in this view; but it is also credible to believe that these results tell us as much about the describing groups as they do about the behavior of the superintendents in question. The point is that school board members, who hire and fire and are responsible for the leader they are describing may well need to see them as more clearly effective --which here means high in both initiating structure and consideration; and it may well be that general scales, which do not specify the behavior they are to describe, maximize the opportunity for them to subjectivize their report. In the final analysis, it is impossible to say how much realism and how much distortion is continued in the clearly different report, in Halpin's study, by the board members as against the teachers.[1]

Conflict

Gordon Alport, who wrote the foreword to Kurt Lewin's Resolving Social Conflicts, said the following about Lewin:

> To Lewin the crucial determinant of group atmosphere lies in leadership. A successful resolution of social conflicts requires in nearly all instances the activity of trained Democratic leaders.[2]

It was Lewin[3] who introduced concepts such as space of free movement, life space region, and field forces, and developed theories of group dynamics and leadership based on topological and vector psychology. One of Lewin's leadership experiments was concerned with the study of leadership in action. He studied the effects of three types of adult leadership in equated boys' clubs. The leadership styles were authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. The authoritarian leader dictated all of the activities and policies of the group. The democratic leader aided and encouraged the boys into deciding their own program, while the laissez-faire leader remained completely aloof. Unless approached directly he did not participate in the group's discussions. The behavior of the boys under the autocratic leader was either more hostile or apathetic than that of boys in the other groups. Scape-goating was used as an outlet for frustration. Boys subjected to authoritarian leadership were not able to adapt easily to a freer atmosphere injected at a later time. The fewest examples of behavior which would be termed unacceptable were found in the groups with the democratic leader.

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[1] Melvin Seeman, "A Comparison of General and Specific Leader Behavior Descriptions," Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement, ed. Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons (Research Monograph 88, Ohio State University, 1957), p. 86.

[2] Kurt Lewin, Resolving Social Conflicts (New York: Harper Brothers, 1948).

[3] Ibid.

Lewin used the concept of barriers in his combination of topology and vector analysis to assist in the study of problems of motivation and behavior. Barriers, according to Lewin, are constraints which offer a certain amount of resistance when opposing forces are exerted. Lewin's notion of barriers is that they exist without having any influence until a challenge or an effort is brought to bear which tends to alter the environment or situation in which the barriers exist. Successful leadership requires the overcoming of the barriers to reach the desired goal.

According to Lewin,[1] behavior is the result of any change in the life space at a particular time. This he represents by the formula B = f(L). The life space is defined as the "totality of possible events" and includes "the person (P) and the environment (E)." Leadership may be expressed at any given moment by the formula B = f(L) = f(P,E,). Use of Lewin's vector and topological analysis has been used to provide insights into problems involving human behavior and the role of leadership.

The common conception of conflict is that it is a destructive force. People in general and organizations in particular feel threatened with its presence. In this section a somewhat deeper look into the nature and forces of conflict will be undertaken to see if this common conception is valid.

In order to have the element of conflict present as a social phenomenon it is necessary, in its simplest form, to have a minimum of two people interacting. Thus, conflict becomes a form of sociation. The presence of conflict in a social organization introduces a counteracting valence to an otherwise conceptually stable state.

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[1] Ibid., p. 216.

According to Georg Simmel,[1] one of the most outstanding theoricians on the subject of social conflict, "conflict itself resolves the tension between contrast."

Conflict in the early stages, more often than not, appears to be more dysfunctional than functional.

The sociation process, however, depends not only on positive valences but also on negative. Out of this interaction of opposing valences a new social unit emerges which is manifested as wholly positive. In this sense, conflict serves to provide the locomotion which moves groups or organizations through the life process. Conflict which erupts within a group or organization actually becomes the change agent by which unity or harmony may again be stabilized. Groups and organizations, however, are dynamic structures and through the introduction of the time element will once again be launched by new and counteracting valences into something quite different tomorrow, so to speak, from what they are today.

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[1] Georg Simmel, "The Significance of Numbers for Social Life," Small Groups, ed. Paul Hare et al. (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1955).

It is through the dynamic changes which take place that social progress is made possible.

It is difficult to convince the adversary against whom the conflict is directed that any good will emerge. Generally speaking the range of vision is limited to the immediate situation.

> The decision-makers are engaged in maintaining and, if possible, strengthening the organizational structures through and in which they exercise power and influence. Whatever conflicts occur within these structures will appear to them to be dysfunctional. Firmly wedded to the existing order by interest and sentiment, the decision-maker tends to view departures from this order as the result of psychological malfunctioning, and to explain conflict behavior as the result of such psychological factors. He will, therefore, be more likely to concern himself with "tensions" or with "stresses" than with those aspects of conflict behavior that might indicate pressures for changing basic institutional arrangements. Also, decision-makers are more likely to consider the dysfunctions of conflict for the total structure, without giving attention to the functions of conflict for particular groups or strata within it.[1]

Conflict, being a sociation process, moves toward peace. The reasons or motives for this transition have several forms. One such reason, according to Coser, is the inherent desire for peace as a concrete state.

> . . . conflict within a group frequently helps to revitalize existent norms; or it contributes to the emergence of new norms. In this sense, social conflict is a mechanism for adjustment of norms adequate to new conditions. A flexible society benefits

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[1] Lewis Coser, The Functions of Social Conflict (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1956), p. 27.

> from conflict because such behavior, by helping to create and modify norms, assures its continuance under changed conditions. Such mechanism for readjustment of norms is hardly available to rigid system: by suppressing conflict, the latter smother a useful warning signal, thereby maximizing the danger of catastrophic breakdown.[1]

Other reasons which serve to terminate conflict are the "exhaustion of strength" and the "deflection of interest from conflict to a higher object." The exhaustion of strength is not seen as the solution to the present controversy between school administrators and teachers' unions. The deflection of interest from conflict to a higher object does appear to have great potential.

Since the passing of Act 379 in the state of Michigan it is lawful for public employees (teachers) "to organize together or to form, join or assist in labor organizations."[2] Exclusive representation must be granted for all employees comprising a bargaining unit. When, in the course of collective negotiations or bargaining, an impasse develops, solutions are often sought by submitting the conflict to a third party for solution. This method of solving disputes, according to Simmel,[3] is not sound from a psychological basis.

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[1] Ibid., p. 154.

[2] Public Act 379 (HB-2953), amending the Hutchison Act, Michigan Statutes.

[3] Coser, op. cit.

Conflicts should be allowed to develop and live themselves out naturally. A conflict robbed of its object is manifested by an empty continuation of the quarrel, a sterile mutual accusing, a revival of earlier, long-buried differences which often take place nevertheless. The continuation of the conflict under a different form often requires as much energy and infighting as before the third-party solution. This condition usually will last until the conflict has had the opportunity to live itself out naturally.

In addition to the "termination of conflict through the disappearance of its object,"[1] Simmel cites three other possibilities for conflict resolution. These are victory and defeat, compromise, and conciliation. While victory and defeat and conciliation are possibilities for conflict resolution between school administrators and teachers' unions, it is the technique of compromise which will most likely play the leading role. The importance of compromise in settling conflicts was expressed by Simmel when he said:

> On the whole, compromise, especially that brought about through exchange, no matter how much we think it is an everyday technique we take for granted, is one of mankind's greatest inventions.[2]

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[1] Ibid.

[2] Georg Simmel, Conflict and the Web of Group Affiliations, trans. Kurt Wolf and R. Bendix (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1955), p. 115.

Lewis Coser, writing in The Functions of Social Conflict, cites the reasons for the intensity of conflict in social organizations:

> If conflict breaks out in a group that has consistently tried to prevent expression of hostile feelings, it will be particularly intense for two reasons: First, because the conflict does not merely aim at resolving the immediate issue which led to its outbreak; all accumulated grievances which were denied expression previously are apt to emerge at this occasion. Second, because the total personality involvement of the group members makes for mobilization of all sentiments in the conduct of the struggle.[1]

Speaking on the point of how organizations can deal with conflict, Coser says:

> Our discussion of the distinction between types of conflict, and between types of social structures, leads us to conclude that conflict tends to be dysfunctional for a social structure in which there is no or insufficient toleration and institutionalization of conflict. The intensity of a conflict which threatens to "tear apart," which attacks the consensual basis of a social system is related to the rigidity of the structure. What threatens the equilibrium of such a structure is not conflict as such, but the rigidity itself which permits hostilities to accumulate and to be channeled along one major line of cleavage once they break out in conflict.[2]

Conflict from the discussion to date does not necessarily need to be regarded as a phenomenon which is out of control. Moreover, conflict within an organization can take on the aspect of bringing about improvements that otherwise would not evolve from a static state.

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[1] Coser, op. cit., p. 152.

[2] Ibid., p. 157.

An outstanding research project undertaken by M. Sherif, O. J. Harvey, B. White, W. Hood, and C. Sherif[1] called "The Robbers' Cave Experiment" sought to study intergroup attitudes and behavior. The general hypothesis was that intergroup attitudes and behavior are determined primarily by the nature of functional relations between groups in question (and not primarily by the pattern of relations and attitudes prevailing within groups themselves, nor primarily by the deviate or neurotic behavior of particular individual members who have suffered more than the usual degree of frustration in their personal life histories).[2]

The research was centered around two groups of boys who were brought together in a typical boys' summer camp. Through skillful manipulation of the research team, different situations were presented to the boys without their knowing what was going on. The research team established a tension situation which brought on a strong rivalry and conflict between the two groups of boys. Emergent leadership developed and changed hands throughout the changing circumstances. Later on the conditions were again changed and an atmosphere conducive to the reduction of tension and a problem requiring intergroup cooperation in order to succeed were introduced. The boys "buried the hatchet" and started to work cooperatively to solve the problem. Through the close association of working together on a common problem the earlier conflict was overcome. By the time the boys were ready to leave the summer camp the original conflict groups had been disbanded.

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[1] M. Sherif et al., "The Robbers' Cave Experiment," Intergroup Conflict and Cooperation (Norman: University of Oklahoma, Institute of Group Relations, 1961).

[2] While Sherif and associates used the term "group" in their research, our present definition would have required the use of the term "organization" for the group differentiated in the roles of the members as soon as they selected a leader, even though the choice was informally made.

Several hypotheses regarding intergroup conflict were established as a result of the "Robbers' Cave Experiment." These are as follows:

> General hypothesis--intergroup attitudes and behavior are determined primarily by the nature of functional relations between groups in question (and not primarily by the pattern of relations and attitudes prevailing within groups themselves, nor primarily by the deviate or neurotic behavior of particular individual members who have suffered more than the usual degree of frustration in their personal life histories).
>
> Hypothesis 1a (Stage 1) If a definite group structure develops, it will be reflected in a consistent pattern in directions of communication. The specific pattern in direction of communication will be as follows: The higher the status of a group member the greater the frequency of suggestions (for group activities) addressed to him.
>
> If Hypothesis 1a holds, it can be predicted that:

Hypothesis 1b (Stage 1) (a) The higher the status of a member in the group, the greater his tendency to overestimate his performance in an activity the group engages in. (b) The higher the status of a member in the group, the greater the tendency of other group members to overestimate his performance. (c) The lower the status of a member in the group, the less his tendency to overestimate his performance in an activity the group engages in. (d) The lower the status of a member in the group the less the tendency of other members to overestimate his performance, even to the point of underestimating it.

Hypothesis 2 (Stage 1) When individuals interact under conditions stated in hypothesis 1, concomitant with the formation of group structure, norms will be standardized regulating their behavior in relations with one another and in practices and activities engaged in.

Hypothesis 1 (Stage 2) In the course of competition and frustrating relations between two groups, unfavorable sterotypes will come into use in relation to the out-group and its members and will be standardized in time, placing the out-group at a certain social distance (proportional to the degree of negative relations between groups).

Hypothesis 1a (Stage 2) In-group members will tend to overestimate the number of items purportedly obtained by in-group members and underestimate the number of items attributed to out-group members.

Hypothesis 1b (Stage 2) The degree of this tendency manifested will vary according to the status (low or high) of in-group and out-group members in question.

Hypothesis 2 (Stage 2) The course of relations between two groups which are in a state of competition and frustration will tend to produce an increase in in-group solidarity.

Hypothesis 3 (Stage 2) Functional relations between groups which are of consequence to the groups in question will tend to bring about changes in the pattern of relations within the in-groups involved.

Hypothesis 4 (Stage 2) Low status members will tend to exert greater efforts which will be revealed in more intense forms of overt aggression and verbal expressions against the out-group as a means of improving their status within the group.

Hypothesis 1 (Stage 3) It is predicted that the contact phase in itself will not produce marked decrease in the existing state of tension between groups.

> Hypothesis 2 (Stage 3) When groups in a state of friction are brought into contact under conditions embodying superordinate goals, the attainment of which is compelling but which cannot be achieved by the efforts of one group alone, they will tend to cooperate toward the common goal.
>
> Hypothesis 2a (Stage 3) Cooperation between groups necessitated by a series of such situations embodying superordinate goals will have a cumulative effect in the direction of reduction of existing tensions between groups.[1]

One of the significant findings relating to the current research is that conflict can be controlled under the proper circumstances. The fact that conflict may be present under certain conditions does not negate the possibility of bringing about behavioral changes in people which will result in cooperative attitudes.

It is in reference to the foregoing statements that the researcher feels that conditions surrounding the present situation between school administrators and teachers' unions has not progressed beyond the stage of conflict illustrated by the middle phase of the research in the "Robbers' Cave Experiment."

What it will take for school administrators and teachers' unions to progress from conflict to cooperation is only conjecture at this point.

Leadership is apparently one of the important factors. Leader behavior of school administrators will undoubtedly be the "key" factor.

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[1] Sherif, loc. cit.

Summary

A review of the literature establishes that leadership research is a relatively modern development. Early writings on leadership consisted chiefly of personal opinions and descriptions of how leaders should perform in an official position.

Early researchers were Binet and Terman, who studied children to discover who were leaders and who were followers. Freud contributed to leadership theory with the suggestion that a leader is a person around whom the group crystalizes.

Leadership studies have searched for universal traits, measured the capacity of the leader, rated a leader's achievements, identified leader's responsibilities, measured the level of a leader's participation, ranked a leader according to his status, and diagnosed the situation in which the leader functions.

Group size is found to be a factor in leader effectiveness. Cattell's research established that leadership cannot always be thought of in terms of the person who occupies a formalized leader position. Another important contribution of Cattell was his concept of syntality; i.e., the leadership ability of a person is defined as his ability to produce a change within the group. Bales introduced the concept of the leader acting in the dimension of time.

The Harvard Graduate School, after an extensive testing program which sought to predetermine "men of promise," concluded that they were unable to make accurate forecasts.

Reviews of the literature on the subject of leadership were made by Smith and Kruger, Jenkins, and Stogdill.

The search for the universal traits of leadership gave way to the situational approach to leadership. Early work by Lewin and Moreno led to the Ohio State University leadership studies. Leadership was operationally defined as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal-setting and goal achievement. A leader, then, by definition is differentiated from other members in the group. Out of the Ohio State University leadership studies a questionnaire was developed known as the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

The study of conflict in social settings and specifically the study of conflict resolution is more a product of modern thought than is the study of leadership. Conflict is more often than not thought to be dysfunctional in an organizational setting. Georg Simmel, however, said of social conflict that "conflict itself resolves the tensions between contrast." The importance of settling conflicts through the technique of compromise was said, by Simmel, to be one of mankind's greatest inventions.

Lewis Coser also supported the theory that conflict tends to move toward peace. Coser, speaking of conflict, said that it is not conflict as such that threatens an organization but rather the rigidity within an organization which permits hostilities to accumulate.

A research project called the "Robbers' Cave Experiment," conducted by M. Sherif and others, established situations in which tension and intergroup conflict occurred. Conditions were changed to ease tension, and problem-solving situations were introduced which required cooperation between the groups. By the end of the experiment conflict had been resolved through programmed control. This finding was relevant for the present situation regarding conflict between administrators and teachers' unions. It established that under the proper conditions conflict can not only be encouraged within an organization but it also can be redirected to produce cooperation and conflict resolution between two groups. This finding was most significant.

CHAPTER III

PLANNING AND CONDUCTING THE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of studying the leader behavior of school administrators in conflict with teachers' unions is to verify if the types of behavior exhibited to teachers were factors in the present crisis climate of school administrators. It has often been said of school administrators that they wear many hats; i.e., assume different roles in their interpersonal relations. They may react and behave in certain ways when dealing with or in the presence of school board members. In the presence of members of the community, a different behavioral pattern may be followed. Interacting with other administrators may elicit a type of behavior different from the behavior exhibited before teachers, and so forth.

The incidence of conflict with teachers, who as a professional group have traditionally been described as one of the more docile groups, has invited an inquiry as to "why" this development has occurred.

Because much of the militancy and conflict has been directed toward school administrators in particular, it is assumed that there may be a cause-and-effect relationship.

School administrators, as the chief executive officers of the school boards and the supposed educational leaders of the teachers, have been the persons held responsible for whatever organizational climate exists within a school system.

Halpin, in his most recent book, Theory and Research in Administration, identifies six basic organizational climates: "(1) the open climate; (2) the autonomous climate; (3) the controlled climate; (4) the familiar climate; (5) the paternal climate; and (6) the closed climate."[1] The climates progress from the most desirable, the open climate, to the least desirable, the closed climate. As the research develops--i.e., interviews and questionnaires are analyzed and scored--the six climates described by Halpin will be used as a tool for appraising the findings.

Another scheme for describing leaders' behavior, also developed by Halpin, is what he calls the "quadrant scheme." It uses the dimensions initiation of structure and consideration (two dimensions of leader behavior identified by using the LBDQ).[2]

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[1] Halpin, op. cit., pp. 174-81.

[2] Ibid., p. 99.

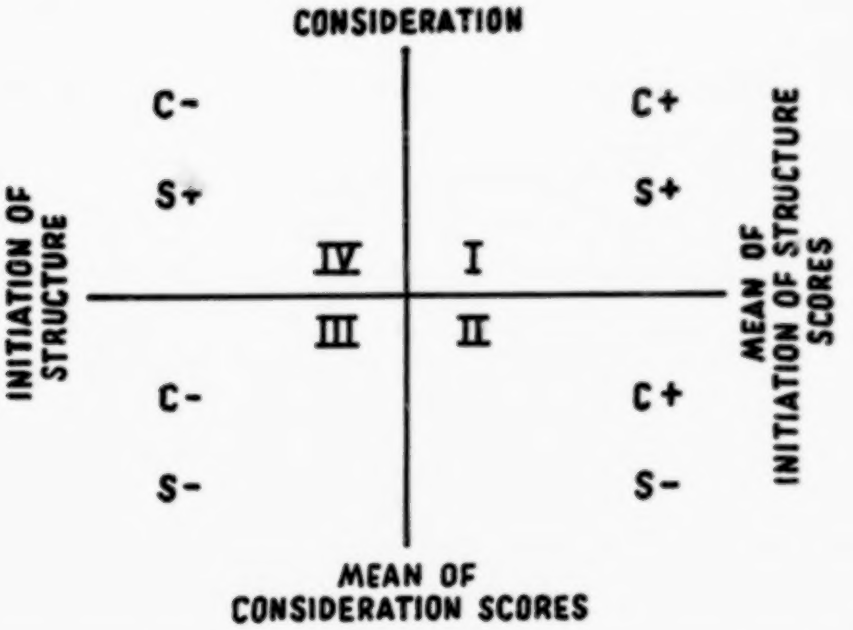
CONSIDERATION
C-
S+
C+
S+
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
IV
I
III
II
MEAN OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCORES
C-
S-
C+
S-
MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES

Figure 1. Quadrant scheme for describing leaders' behavior on the initiation of structure and consideration dimensions.[1]

Halpin's research established that the most effective leaders were those who score high on both dimensions. According to Halpin:

> The leaders described in Quadrant I are evaluated as highly effective, whereas those in Quadrant III, whose behavior is ordinarily accompanied by group chaos, are characterized as most ineffective. The leaders in Quadrant IV are the martinets and the "cold fish" so intent upon getting a job done that they forget they are dealing with human beings, not with cogs in a machine. The individuals described in Quadrant II are also ineffective leaders. They may ooze with the milk of human kindness, but this contributes little to effective performance, unless their consideration behavior is accomplished by a necessary minimum of Initiating Structure behavior.[2]

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[1] *Ibid.*

[2] *Ibid.*

The test instrument is an outgrowth of Andrew Halpin's original Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire which was employed to study the leader behavior of fifty Ohio school superintendents. In Halpin's study the superintendents represented a cross section of school administrators in a somewhat typical spread of organizational climates. In the present research the following factors are relevant and have played an important role in the development of the "new" climate of school administration: (1) The administrators being studied are all experiencing a degree of conflict with the teachers' union. (2) Teachers' organizations and, in this case, the Federation of Teachers, are exerting a militancy never before witnessed in the annals of school administration. (3) The legal requirements established by enactment of Public Act 379 have seemingly imposed a new climate for interpersonal relations with teachers' groups. (4) The skills required to function effectively in the arena of labor relations[1] were not included in the professional training of present-day school administrators. (5) There is an increasing urgency for conflict resolution in a more complex social setting than was the case in Andrew Halpin's study. (6) The supply of professionally trained teachers is at an all-time low in relation to the demand and has aided the teachers in the creation of an opposing power bloc.

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[1] Under the terms and definitions of PA 379, a teachers' organization is considered the same as a labor union.

General Methods of the Study

The increasing incidence of conflict between school administrators and teachers' unions has been the subject of many heated debates. If a person is a school administrator he finds himself on one side of the issue. If he is a union member he automatically is on the other side. The lines have been drawn, but to date the rationality for such arbitrariness of positions seems to have been rather hazily sketched. The rightness or wrongness of the respective positions will be the subject of collective negotiations in the years to come. The concern here was to study one aspect of the problem; i.e., the leader behavior of school administrators.

Several techniques were used to study leader behavior of school administrators in conflict with teachers' unions. The first technique involved personal interviews with school administrators, school board members, teachers' union representatives, Labor Mediation Board members, and university professors. The interview technique was especially valuable in garnering background information and opinions relevant to the "new" climate of school administration and the role administrators are playing.

The interview technique, according to Good, Barr, and Scates,[1] enables the researcher "to secure many data that cannot be obtained through the less personal procedures of distributing a reply blank." Further, "the interview permits the interviewer to gain an impression of the person who is giving the facts, to form some judgement of the truth in the facts, and to 'read between the lines,' things that are not said." Halpin offers the following example of "mixed messages" in his chapter on "The Eloquence of Behavior."

> Mr. Martin, superintendent of schools in the suburban town of East Futility, announces to his visitor at a faculty meeting, "In our school we have a democratic administration. Our curriculum and, in fact, all of our school policies are determined by group decision. We really are one happy family." He smiles benevolently at the group, and a few of the teachers sheepishly smile back. Mr. Martin sits at a desk mounted on a dais, and he paces the faculty through the tight agenda which he has prepared. He interrupts group members before they have finished talking. While some teachers are speaking, he nods approval; when others speak, the small muscles at the side of his lips tighten, and he drums his fingers against the desk. When a topic is introduced for discussion, he firmly states his own opinion at the outset and, oddly enough, those teachers whom he first invites to express their reactions--the same ones on

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[1] Carter V. Good, A. S. Barr, and Douglas Scates, The Methodology of Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1941), p. 378.

> whom he has previously bestowed his smiles--unanimously agree with his judgment. At one point where a few teachers voice objection to the regulations he has inaugurated on lunchroom duty and where other group members rush quick support to this opposition, he suggests that this is a matter on which the faculty should not decide hastily. He appoints a subcommittee with himself as chairman, which will report back to the larger group next month. When the meeting is over, the teachers file quietly out of the room; no one speaks to the superintendent. As he escorts his visitor from the meeting, he explains in his best stentorian tone, "The only way to keep a faculty happy is to allow complete freedom of expression."[1]

Another point made by Halpin is that "in examining the adage that 'actions speak louder than words,' we should key our inquiry to action; specifically, we must alert ourselves to the subtle ways in which non-verbal behavior speaks more eloquently than our most emphatic words."[2]

The second technique used was the administration of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII. The LBDQ was administered to the school administrators, school board members, and representatives of the teachers' union. Each participant responded to the same questionnaire twice. There were 100 statements describing a specific type of leader behavior. The first time the respondent answered the questionnaire he described what he considers the "ideal" (LBDQ-Ideal) type of leader behavior a school administrator should practice. The second time the respondent answered the questionnaire he described the actual (LBDQ-Real) behavior of the school administrator within his own school district, as he perceived it to be. The following statements are illustrative of the types of leader behavior being described: (1) He gets along well with people above him. (2) He is willing to make changes. (3) He acts without consulting the group.

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[1] Halpin, op. cit., p. 260.

[2] Ibid., p. 253.

To the foregoing types of statements the respondent gave one of five possible answers: (1) always, (2) often, (3) occasionally, (4) seldom, or (5) never.

Prior to administering the LBDQ (test instrument) to the selected school administrators, school board members, and teachers' union representatives, a pretest was conducted. Problems encountered in the pretest were corrected before administering the instrument in the selected districts. One problem arose from the fact that some of the statements describing leader behavior are more descriptive of industrial organizations than of educational institutions. This problem was not particularly difficult to overcome. Respondents were advised to adapt the terminology to their own frame of reference.

Interviews were conducted with the pretest group the same as with the study groups. An effort was made to establish effective communications and rapport. Sensitive areas concerning attitudes and conflict examples were probed to give experience and improve the approach which was later used.

Selection of School Districts for the Study

It was assumed, prior to contacting school administrators, that discussion of conflict within their school districts would be touching on a rather sensitive nerve. This assumption, however, did not come close to anticipating the extreme sensitivity that has developed on the part of school administrators, boards of education, and national and state associations.

The first indication of hesitancy should have been apparent when a letter was sent, along with a description of the research plan, to the national association, of which most school administrators are members, to determine their interest in seeing this research undertaken. A letter from the association to school administrators would have been helpful to the researcher when soliciting their cooperation to participate in the project. The answer given was that their organization could not endorse research in its formative stage. The interesting point is that an endorsement was not solicited. The request was for a declaration of interest in seeing the subject area pursued. Several explanatory letters failed to clarify the point. Sometime later, while attending a national conference, the proposed research was described to an executive officer of the association. He agreed this was the type of project that should be supported by his organization. The refusal of the national association to provide the letter which had been requested was then explained to him. He stated that, obviously, there had been an error and indicated he would see to it that a letter of such support would be forthcoming. Again, as before, no such letter came. The letter that did arrive stated that the issues were more complicated than had been realized and would require further study.

In the meantime, the same request was made to a national organization representing most school board members. Within a very short time a letter was returned complying with the request for a statement of their interest in seeing the proposed research undertaken. After the experience with the administrators' national organization, it was decided to contact representatives of the state organization. Again, there was a refusal. The answer given this time was that, while the research was important, school administrators who were involved in conflict situations might misunderstand a letter from the state organization, and so the request would be denied.

A similar letter was sent to the president of the American Federation of Teachers, with an explanation of the nature of the research and the type of letter which was being requested. A letter of interest in the project was received by return mail.

Reports by the news media throughout the spring of 1965 telling of conflict between school administrators and union locals in school districts in Michigan supplied the basic list from which the sample was drawn. This list contained twenty-six districts which met the criteria established for the study.

A cover letter with the description of the research was sent, asking the cooperation of the school administrator and the school board in the completion of the questionnaires. An assurance of anonymity was given to all who would participate. As a preliminary step, one administrator on the list was asked for an appointment to discuss the proposed research. An appointment was made. A copy of the research proposal, along with a copy of the cover letter which was to be sent, was taken to the interview. The administrator carefully examined all the material and said he would be glad to participate in the research and added that he, as much as anyone, had experienced the type of conflict on which the study was to be focused. He also said that in his opinion the material was clearly presented and he could see no reason why administrators would not agree to participate. He then offered the observation that conflict between school administrators and the Michigan Federation of Teachers or the Michigan Education Association chapters was so widespread that it dominated every meeting or discussion he had participated in since the passage of PA 379.

With confidence in the letters and the accompanying prospectus of the research, the first contact with a school district was made. Several days later a polite refusal was received with the explanation that, due to present bargaining sessions with the union, the timing was not appropriate for either the school administrator or the school board to participate in this type of research. If, however, another request could be made at a later date, when the bargaining was completed, it was indicated the matter would be reconsidered. This refusal did not appear to rule out later cooperation.

Consequently, the material was sent to five other school administrators, soliciting their cooperation. One administrator out of the five replied affirmatively. The other four chose not to answer the letters. One acceptance out of five indicated another review of the materials being sent to the school administrators should be made. After analyzing the content once again, it was decided to reduce the reading time and to simplify the explanation of the research. The revised material was sent to two more administrators. One accepted, the other refused. The one who refused said that he was too involved with the mechanics of collective bargaining to become involved with the intricacies of the conflict issue.

The acceptance rate was not progressing satisfactorily at all. In the beginning, the number of conflict cases that met the established research criteria was rather small. Consequently, it was decided to request a letter from a prominent professor of school administration at the university. The letter he prepared, which would accompany the research material, stated the importance of the study and asked school administrators to please cooperate. This letter, along with another revised letter without the full details of the research, was sent to five other administrators. Three accepted; two did not answer the letter.

The next request for cooperation was channeled through the executive secretary of an organization which was founded to conduct and participate in educational research pertinent to metropolitan districts. A letter was sent separately from the research director to several school administrators requesting their cooperation in the research. One of the first responses from this group stated that he and the school board could meet late in the summer. A date was established. Another administrator said that he would be willing to be interviewed but that neither he nor his board members would have time to complete the questionnaires. Although this administrator would not agree to fully participate in the research and implied that his board would not have time to cooperate, it was decided to go ahead with the interview. (Both the LBDQ-Real and the LBDQ-Ideal can be completed within thirty minutes.)

It was becoming evident that the number of remaining districts which could participate was dwindling fast. The next approach to be tried had to use the only other avenue left; i.e., direct contact. The first school administrator to be called on the telephone was given only a very brief description of the research. The conflict issue was minimized and the requirement of filling out questionnaires was glossed over. An appointment was made for an interview. During the course of the interview, the matter of filling out the questionnaires was brought up. Though reluctant, he did agree to complete the questionnaires. The board members did likewise.

The same method was tried again with another administrator. This interview pattern also met with success, as did most of the remaining contacts. One administrator, however, who agreed to participate during the interview failed to complete the questionnaires, as did his board members. He was later contacted and asked if he would make an effort to have the board members and his own completed questionnaires returned as soon as it would be convenient for them to do so. A letter was received stating that the school board members and the administrator would not be able to spare the time to complete the questionnaires.

Another school administrator, who earlier had been contacted by mail and had refused to cooperate, was telephoned and asked if he would reconsider the opportunity to participate. He said that his district did not have conflict of the type that was being studied and did not feel that research of this type could make a worthwhile contribution to educational administrators. It was explained to the administrator that, quite possibly, he was right but unless a subject is thoroughly researched it is difficult to form valid opinions. He was again asked to reconsider. He reluctantly agreed to complete the questionnaire if it could be mailed to him. After several weeks, a number of the completed questionnaires to board members were returned. After another week or two had passed another letter was sent informing the administrator that the board members' questionnaires had been received and requesting that he please take a few minutes to complete his. Several more weeks elapsed and his questionnaire was returned without being completed. A polite letter explained that he was sorry but he was so overworked he could not possibly take time to complete the questionnaires.

Another school administrator, who seemed to be rather enthusiastic about the subject of the research, offered another contrast in refusals. He met with the research director for the first time at the university conference which was called to discuss problems being encountered in the field of school administration. One of the major concerns expressed by most of the administrators related to the problem of conflict present in school administration since the adoption of PA 379.

After the meeting was over, the administrator was asked if he and his board would be willing to participate in the research being undertaken. He stated that they would be happy to do anything to help shed some light on the problem. The detailed plan of the research was forwarded to the administrator along with the questionnaires. Several weeks elapsed without any of the completed questionnaires being returned. It was decided to telephone the administrator to ask if he could encourage the board members to complete and return the questionnaires. The administrator apologized for the delay but explained that the school board's attorney had advised the board and himself not to participate under any circumstances, nor even to discuss the subject of conflict with the researcher. This was a real loss to the research because the administrator and the school board had, several days earlier, been charged with unfair labor practices. Several of the charges were later upheld by the Labor Mediation Board hearing's officer.

It would be remiss not to mention the attitudes expressed by those school administrators who agreed to participate in this obviously controversial subject. One administrator expressed the view that he was now nearing the end of his administrative career and that, in all his years in the field of public school administration, he had never experienced the magnitude of conflict that he had witnessed in recent months. He was not sure of the source but he was concerned over what was happening. As he reflected over the many years, he said he felt that administrators could be partly to blame for the conditions fostering conflict. He stated that if he could help some young administrator just starting out to avoid some of the difficulties he had experienced he felt that it was little enough to ask.

Another administrator said that it was rather unnerving to be suddenly confronted by teachers who, previously, were rather docile and were now seething with anger and militancy. He said there must have been underlying dissatisfaction present all along, of which he and other administrators had not been aware. Also, the organizational climate of the school, apparently, was such that there was little opportunity for teachers to give free expression to their views. He also stated that, if there were something he was doing wrong in the way he administered the schools, he wanted to rectify the situation.

Other examples of positive thinking on the part of school administrators were observed. However, these examples should illustrate the point that some administrators do recognize there may be weaknesses in their administrative behavior which, inadvertently, may be nurturing conflict.

Whether or not the administrators being studied recognized the effects of their behavioral patterns in relation to conflict with teachers' unions was not considered in selecting the final respondents

Summary

The plan of the study included reviewing the literature on the subjects of leadership and conflict. Identification was made of school districts in which the school administrator was undergoing conflict with teachers' unions. Cooperation was solicited from the school administrator to participate. The primary techniques used to gather data were personal interviews and administration of a questionnaire.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Presentation

Ten school districts in Michigan, in which the element of conflict between administrator and teachers' union had been predetermined, were chosen to be studied. Personal interviews and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Form XII) were the data-gathering devices upon which this research is based. Within each district being studied, the chief school administrator, members of the school board, and representatives of the teachers' union comprised the sample.

The study was aimed at discovering if there were leader behavioral patterns common to those administrators involved in conflict. The LBDQ was administered twice. The first time required the respondents to describe the type of leader behavior they would ascribe to an ideal school administrator. The second administration of the LBDQ sought to determine the actual or real leader behavior description of the school administrator. The LBDQ was used to establish ideal and real descriptions of the administrator by the administrator, members of the school board, and the representatives of the teachers' union. This was conducive to a triangulation analysis of the data and enabled an identification of the dimensions of leader behavior which appear to be contributing to the presence of conflict.

The LBDQ[1] contains 100 items which are descriptions of types of leader behavior. Overall there were 14,000 responses to the statements describing leader behavior. The respondents when describing leader behavior indicated their opinions about each item by marking one of five possible choices. The choices were: always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never. The five choices have a numerical value of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. Twenty items are stated negatively and, therefore, are scored in reverse. Within the 100 items are twelve dimensions of leader behavior. These dimensions are as follows:

1. Representation--speaks and acts as the representative of the teachers (5 items).
2. Demand reconciliation--reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system (5 items).

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[1] The complete Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire is included in Appendix B.

3. Tolerance of uncertainty--is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset (10 items).

4. Persuasiveness--uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions (10 items).

5. Initiation of structure--clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected (10 items).

6. Tolerance of freedom--allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action (10 items).

7. Role assumption--actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others (10 items).

8. Consideration--regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers (10 items).

9. Production emphasis--applies pressure for productive output (10 items).

10. Predictive accuracy--exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately (5 items).

11. Integration--maintains a closely knit organization; resolves intermember conflicts (5 items).

12. Superior orientation--maintains cordial relations with superiors; has influence with them; is striving for higher status (10 items).

In addition to the scores of the LBDQ-Ideal and the LBDQ-Real for each respondent of ten districts, a third set of scores was created. These scores represent the differences found between the two sets of questionnaires; i.e., LBDQ-Ideal minus the LBDQ-Real scores.

Analysis of variance was used to determine the significance of the scale scores obtained over the twelve dimensions of leader behavior.

Analysis

Tables 1 (ideal) and 2 (real) are reports of the average scale scores for each of the respondents across the ten school systems.

Prior to applying Halpin's quadrant scheme for describing leader behavior, it should again be emphasized that the term "leadership" as used throughout this research, as it was in the Ohio State University leadership studies, is not considered as being synonymous with good or effective leadership. There was no prejudgment of school administrators, school board members, or representatives of teachers' unions. The technique was to study the leader behavior of the school administrators in the milieu in which it functioned through the administration of the test instrument. Several tests were performed to determine whether the three groups agreed as to what constitutes an ideal administrator, and whether they agreed on their descriptions of the administrator.

Hypothesis 1. School administrators, school board members, and teachers' union representatives will tend to agree in

Table 1. LBDQ-Ideal: average scale scores for each of the respondents across the ten school systems.

Leader Behavior Dimensions	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)
Consideration	44.70	43.47	43.03	43.73
Initiation of structure	44.10	44.13	40.93	43.06
Integration	22.60	22.57	21.00	22.06
Demand reconciliation	22.20	23.30	22.03	22.51
Tolerance of uncertainty	40.40	39.77	38.97	39.71
Predictive accuracy	22.00	21.03	20.53	21.19
Superior orientation	42.70	42.67	40.73	42.03
Persuasiveness	44.70	43.07	41.20	42.99
Tolerance of freedom	42.30	40.57	41.90	41.59
Production emphasis	36.80	37.47	34.17	36.14
Representation	20.00	20.77	18.90	19.89
Role assumption . . .	42.00	45.03	40.13	42.39
Dimension averages .	35.38	35.32	33.63	34.77

Table 2. LBDQ-Real: average scale scores for each of the respondents across the ten school systems.

Leader Behavior Dimensions	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)
Consideration	40.60	40.00	25.67	35.42
Initiation of structure	40.10	40.10	30.90	37.03
Integration	20.00	20.13	12.37	17.50
Demand reconciliation	18.40	20.67	14.87	17.98
Tolerance of uncertainty	36.40	37.17	27.83	33.80
Predictive accuracy	18.70	19.13	14.47	17.43
Superior orientation	37.20	39.70	36.33	37.71
Persuasiveness	36.10	38.43	29.17	34.57
Tolerance of freedom	40.50	38.40	27.50	35.47
Production emphasis	33.50	34.53	28.23	32.09
Representation	19.20	19.37	16.23	18.27
Role assumption . . .	37.10	39.80	32.07	36.32
Dimension averages .	31.48	32.28	24.64	29.47

> their descriptions of what constitutes ideal leader behavior of an administrator.

The traditional F statistic, calculated on the three groups' ideal scale scores, had a value of 2.309. With two and twenty-seven degrees of freedom, this F ratio at most suggests some differences among the three groups' concepts of the ideal administrator (not significant at the .10 level). To the extent that there are differences among the three groups, the teachers' union average scores are somewhat below the averages of the other two groups.

> Hypothesis 2. School administrators and school board members will tend to disagree with teachers' union representatives on their descriptions of an administrator.

The F statistic was not calculated over all scales for the real scores. Ten of twelve F ratios calculated on individual scales were significant at the .01 level (not significant on initiation of structure and role assumption scales). Teachers' union scores were far below the other two groups.

> Hypothesis 3. Teachers' union representatives will describe their administrator's leader behavior as being less effective than will either the administrator or school board members.

The third set of data analyzed statistically was produced by subtracting real-scale scores from corresponding ideal-scale scores. By this means a measure was obtained of the difference between every respondent's concept of an ideal administrator and his

Table 3. D (difference) scores (LBDQ-Ideal minus LBDQ-Real): average scale scores for each of the respondents across the ten school systems.

Leader Behavior Dimensions	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)
Consideration	4.10	3.47	17.37	8.31
Initiation of structure	4.00	4.03	10.03	6.02
Integration	2.60	2.43	8.63	4.56
Demand reconciliation	3.80	2.63	7.17	4.53
Tolerance of uncertainty	4.00	2.60	11.13	5.91
Predictive accuracy	3.30	1.90	6.07	3.76
Superior orientation	5.50	3.07	4.40	4.32
Persuasiveness	8.60	4.63	12.03	8.42
Tolerance of freedom	1.80	2.17	14.40	6.12
Production emphasis	3.30	2.93	5.93	4.06
Representation	0.80	1.40	2.67	1.62
Role assumption . . .	4.90	5.23	8.07	6.07
Dimension averages .	3.89	3.04	8.99	5.31

perception of his administrator. F statistics calculated over the three responding groups and within scales were highly significant on all but the superior orientation, production emphasis, representation, and role assumption scales. Additional tests were performed comparing teachers' difference scores with the difference scores of each of the other two groups. Because it was felt that the F statistics might be reflecting primarily the inappropriateness of using interval scale analysis techniques on the data, these final tests were "one-tailed" sign tests. With probability much greater than .9999, teachers perceive their administrators as further from ideal administrators than do either the administrators themselves or the school board members.

> Hypothesis 4. School board members' descriptions of the leader behavior of their administrator will tend to be the same as the descriptions they will give to describe the leader behavior of the ideal type of administrator.

To test this hypothesis, the average of LBDQ-Ideal scores minus LBDQ-Real scores for board members was tested against zero. A one-tailed *t* test yielded a *t* value greater than 10. This finding dictated that the hypothesis be rejected. The rejection of the hypothesis agrees with the findings of Halpin. Board members in districts in which there is an element of conflict apparently are able to differentiate between their leader behavior ideology and the real leader behavior of their administrator. This finding indicates that board members are not, in an absolute sense, defensive of the leader behavior of school administrators and will describe the real leader behavior as they perceive it to be.

This suggestion is most interesting when compared to Halpin's original research. Halpin found that board members tended to evaluate the leader behavior of their administrators as being more effective than did the administrators themselves. Do school boards expect more of their administrators than the administrators themselves expect? Due to the fact that school boards hire the school administrator, the statistical tendency may be related to the employer's selection of his employee.

> Hypothesis 5. School board members will tend to describe the leader behavior of their school administrator as being more effective than the administrator will describe his own leader behavior.

A sign test was used to test administrators' difference scores against board members' difference scores. The calculated Z (with a value of 1.28) suggests that administrators may view themselves as further from ideal than do their board members.

A brief review of Halpin's quadrant scheme for describing leaders' behavior using the leader dimensions of consideration and initiation of structure is as follows:

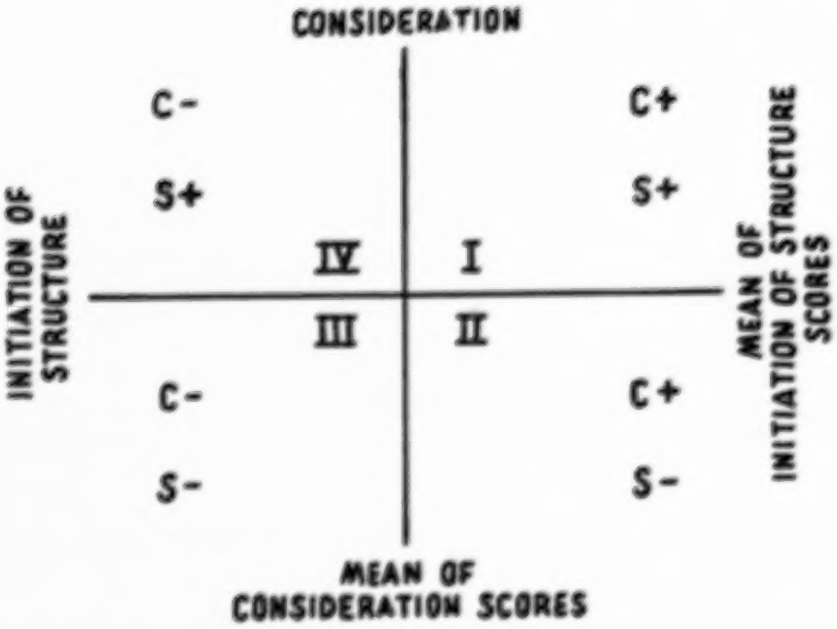
CONSIDERATION
C-
S+
C+
S+
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
IV
I
III
II
MEAN OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCORES
C-
S-
C+
S-
MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES

Figure 2. Review of the quadrant scheme for describing leader behavior.

Any subject whose leader behavior scores are above the median is given a plus (+) factor; if below the median, a minus (-) factor. The four possible combinations are arranged summarily into the quadrant scheme as depicted by Figure 1. Leaders are described as being highly effective whose scores place them in Quadrant I. Leaders in Quadrant II are characterized as being "nice to people." However, because of their inability to clearly define their own role and to acquaint subordinates with what is expected of them, they are essentially ineffective administrators. Quadrant III characterizes the least effective administrator. He is apparently unwilling or unable to assume his leader role in dealing with subordinates. The leaders in Quadrant IV are the type whose only concern is in "getting the job done." They have no qualms about taking advantage of subordinates or exploiting their talents just as long as they reach their own objectives. In Quadrant IV, the worth of the subordinate is largely measured in direct proportion to the assistance he will give the administrator in accomplishing his goal.

The analysis of the data, using the quadrant scheme, will progress by comparing how the administrators, as a group, described the ideal leader behavior on the dimensions of consideration and initiation of structure. It appears that administrators A, C, and G

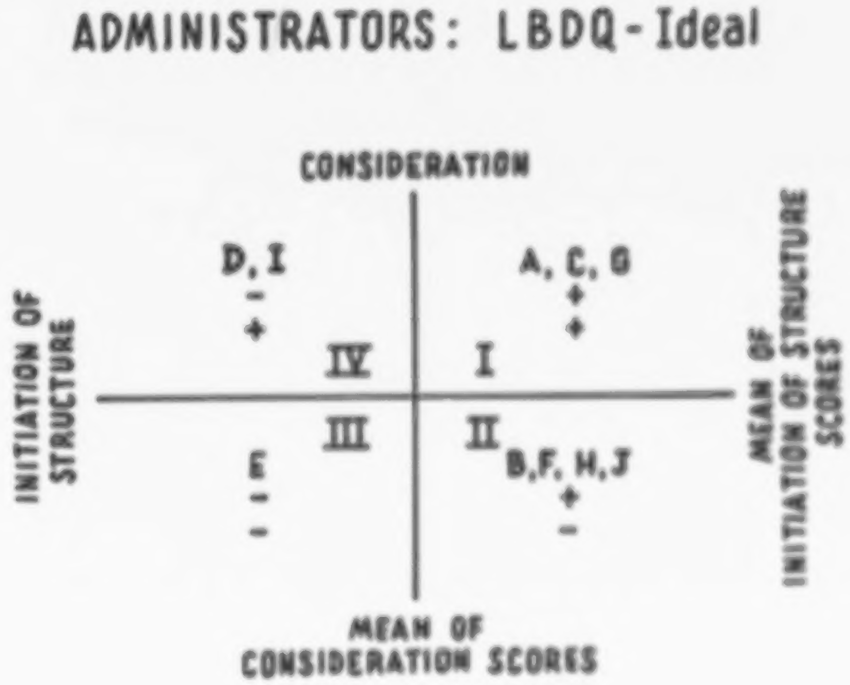
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ-Ideal
CONSIDERATION
D, I
−
+
A, C, G
+
+
IV
I
III
II
E
−
−
B,F,H,J
+
−
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
MEAN OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCORES
MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES

Figure 3. Quadrant analysis of the ten school administrators' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions consideration and initiation of structure.

have a good concept of what an effective administrator's behavior should be. Administrators D, H, and J feel that the individual within an organization is of lesser importance to task accomplishment. The low value placed on the individual could be a factor in the incidence of conflict if the LBDQ-Real scores of the three groups reflect the same leader behavior. This fact should be kept in mind for each of the twelve dimensions. Administrator E has a low ideology of the leader behavior dimensions consideration and initiation of structure when compared to the mean. As the quadrant analysis progresses it will be interesting to take note of the LBDQ-Ideal and LBDQ-Real results for this particular administrator. Administrators B, F, H, and J ideal leader behavior descriptions are bright in one respect. They recognize that a major concern of the administrator is in the area of human relations. Their negative attitude on the dimension of initiation of structure could be related to deficiencies in their professional preparation, or it may be nothing more than a revelation of their basic personality traits.

Application of the quadrant scheme to the administrators' LBDQ-Real scores on the same dimensions--i.e., consideration and initiation of structure--make apparent discrepancies between LBDQ-Ideal and LBDQ-Real scores. Administrators A and G, when describing their own leader behavior, apparently feel that they

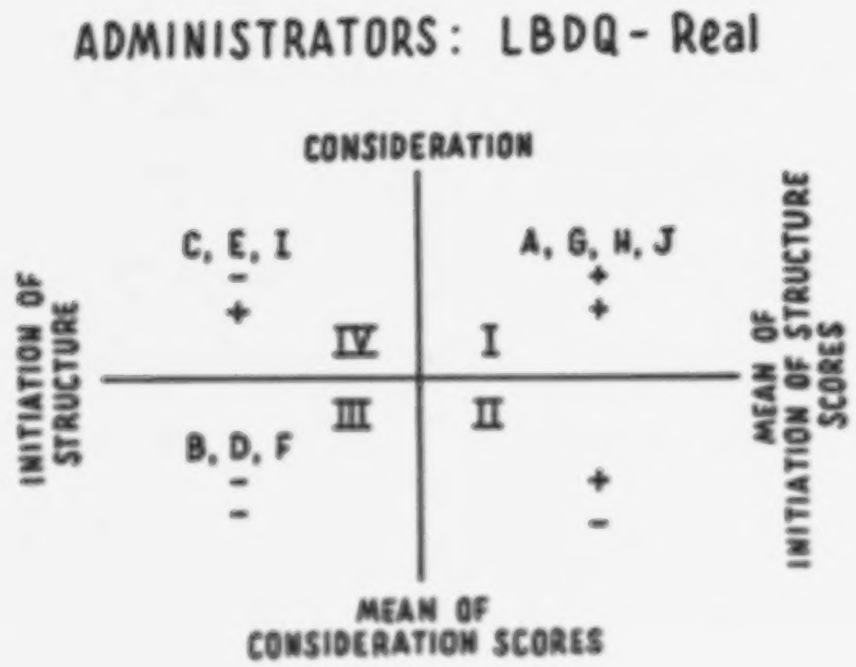
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ- Real
CONSIDERATION
C, E, I
-
+
A, G, H, J
+
+
IV
I
III
II
B, D, F
-
-
+
-
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
MEAN OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCORES
MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES

Figure 4. Quadrant analysis of the ten school administrators' LBDQ-Real scores on the leader behavior dimensions consideration and initiation of structure.

are behaving the way an administrator should; i.e., they describe their own behavior (LBDQ-Real) as being a close approximation to their own description of an ideal administrator. It is interesting to note that no administrator appraised his own leader behavior in such a way as to categorize himself in Quadrant II. Administrators C, E, and I recognized their own lack of sensitivity in dealing with people. Administrators E and H felt that their leader behavior on the initiation of structure dimension was actually better than what they thought was necessary for an ideal administrator. Administrator E represents what would appear to be a classic example of a frustrated administrator. He had a confused picture of what the ideal administrator should be and a somewhat inflated self-image. His LBDQ-Ideal scale scores on the consideration and initiation of structure dimensions fall in Quadrant III, which is characteristic of the ineffective administrator. His LBDQ-Real scores place him in Quadrant IV, which Halpin describes as "the martinets and the 'cold fish' administrator."

According to Halpin's original research he found that there was a

> tendency for superiors and subordinates to evaluate oppositely the contribution of the leader behavior dimensions to the effectiveness of leadership. Superiors are more concerned with the Initiating Structure aspects of the leader's behavior, whereas subordinates are more concerned with (or "interested in") the Consideration the leader extends to them as group members. This difference in group attitude appears to impose upon the leader some measure of conflicting role-expectations.[1]

In accordance with Halpin's findings it would not be unexpected to discover that some board members placed greater emphasis on the initiation of structure and less on consideration. A plot of the board members (LBDQ-Ideal) gives some support to Halpin's findings.

Only board members in District A placed a greater emphasis on consideration than on initiation of structure. In six districts

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[1] Halpin, op. cit., p. 98.

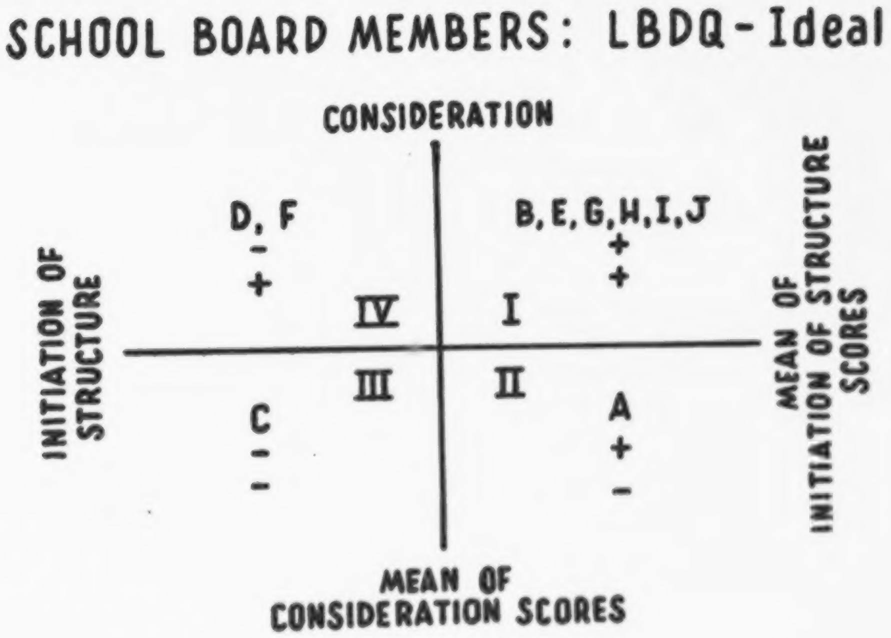
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS: LBDQ-Ideal
CONSIDERATION
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
D, F
- +
B, E, G, H, I, J
+ +
IV
I
III
II
C
- -
A
+ -
MEAN OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCORES
MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES

Figure 5. Quadrant analysis of the ten school boards' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions consideration and initiation of structure.

the board members rated consideration and initiation of structure postitive (Quadrant I), while in one district board members rated initiation of structure as being more important for the ideal administrator than consideration. Only in District C did the board members place a low emphasis on both dimensions.

In the preceding discussion the administrator's leadership ideology was compared with his self-image on the dimensions consideration and initiation of structure. In Halpin's study administrators as a group were found to differentiate between their behavior; i.e., when dealing with board members they behaved one way, and they behaved another way when dealing with their staffs. Educational administrators were found to place a greater emphasis on consideration than they did on initiation of structure.

In the present study seven administrators out of ten scored positive on their consideration ideology. When the administrators described their actual or real leader behavior, only four out of ten scores were positive.

On the initiation of structure dimension the administrator's ideology was scored positive only five times out of ten. Administrators H and J described their real leader behavior higher than their ideological leader behavior. Only administrators C, E, and I described their leader behavior on the consideration dimension as being of lesser importance than initiation of structure. In five out of ten cases, administrators regarded a high score on initiation of structure as being desirable. This evidence supports similar findings of Halpin.

When these same board members described their school administrator's real leader behavior, they characterized the type of behavior that tends to agree again with Halpin's original findings. The board members described their administrator highly on initiation of structure and slightly less on consideration.

The teachers' union representatives across the ten school districts placed less emphasis, in comparison to administrators and school board members, on the consideration and initiation of structure dimensions. In view of the conflict between administrators and the teachers' unions, this fact is rather important. The scores indicate that teachers, in conflict with administrators, as a group place a lower emphasis on initiation of structure than the other two groups. This finding is somewhat different than was the case in Halpin's research. While teachers' expectations may be lower than the other two groups, the critical factor is whether the administrator is able to meet the expectations they do have.

Plotting the scores of the LBDQ-Ideal for the teachers' union representatives shows a lower level of agreement over both of the dimensions.

From Halpin's previous research it was noted that board members tended to rate the descriptions of their administrators on both dimensions higher than did staff members. It was also noted that board members placed greater emphasis on initiation of structure than they did on consideration. Staff members, on the other hand, tended to place a greater emphasis on consideration than they did on initiation of structure. The real leader behavior descriptions of the teachers' union representatives are presented in Figure 7.

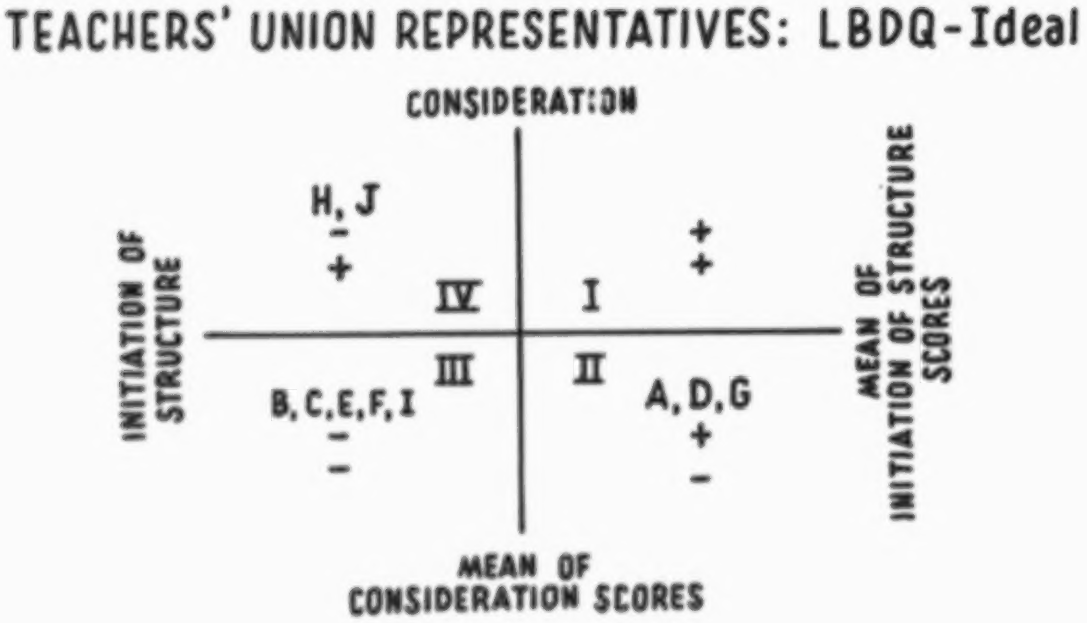
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES: LBDQ-Ideal
CONSIDERATION
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
MEAN OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCORES
MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES
H, J
- +
+ +
IV
I
III
II
B, C, E, F, I
- -
A, D, G
+ -

Figure 6. Quadrant analysis of the teachers' union representatives' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions consideration and initiation of structure.

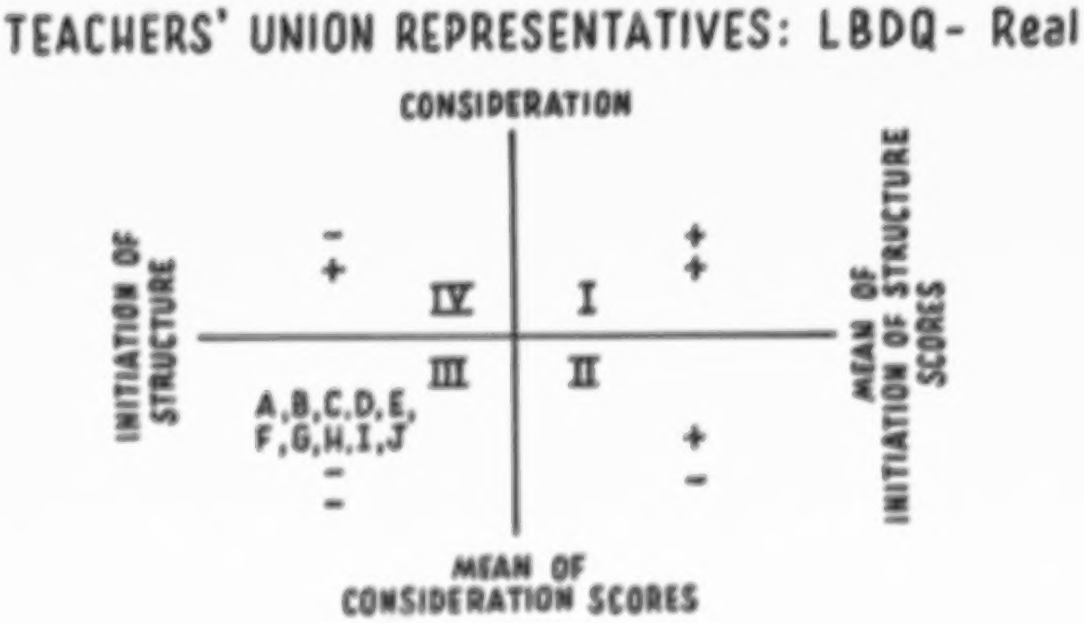
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES: LBDQ- Real
CONSIDERATION
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
MEAN OF INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCORES
MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES
- +
+ +
IV
I
III
II
A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J
- -
+ -

Figure 7. Quadrant analysis of the teachers' union representatives' LBDQ-Real scores on the leader behavior dimensions consideration and initiation of structure.

The unanimity between districts on the leader behavior descriptions of the school administrator by the teachers' union representatives is more significant than had been expected. The evidence indicates that school administrators in a conflict setting see themselves as being less effective than is desirable. School board members, as was expected, were slightly more concerned with strength in an administrator's initiation of structure than in the consideration dimension. Scores on the LBDQ indicate that teachers' unions agree that administrators are seriously deficient in both initiation of structure and consideration.

The tendency for board members and teachers' unions to evaluate leader behavior oppositely gives supporting evidence that a re-evaluation of administrative behavior may be warranted. It would also seem reasonable that this observation would hold true for administrators experiencing conflict with groups other than teachers' organizations.

The next leader behavior dimensions to be discussed are integration and demand reconciliation. Integration refers to an administrator's leader behavior in maintaining a closely knit organization and the resolution of intermember conflicts. Demand reconciliation describes the leader's behavior in reconciling conflicting demands and his ability to reduce disorder to system. Figure 8

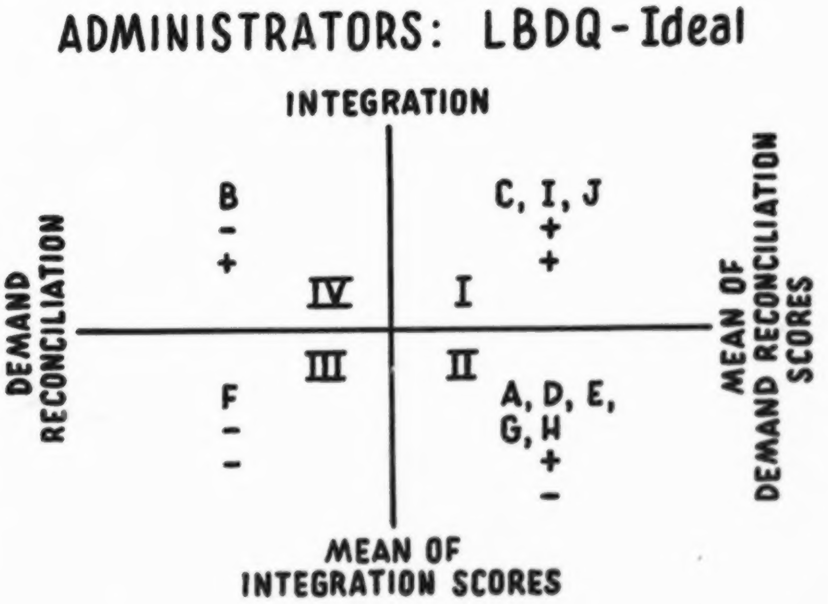
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ-Ideal
INTEGRATION
DEMAND RECONCILIATION
MEAN OF DEMAND RECONCILIATION SCORES
MEAN OF INTEGRATION SCORES
B
-
+
C, I, J
+
+
IV
I
III
II
F
-
-
A, D, E, G, H
+
-

Figure 8. Quadrant analysis of the school administrators' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions integration and demand reconciliation.

presents the ideology of the school administrators on these two dimensions.

The ideology of the administrator concerning the dimensions integration and demand reconciliation are scored highly in eight out of ten cases. Administrator B placed less emphasis on integration than he did on demand reconciliation. Administrators A, D, E, G, and H reversed their emphasis to indicate that they felt that integration was more important to them than was demand reconciliation.

The LBDQ-Real scores as given by the administrators and again translated into the quadrant scheme are presented in Figure 9.

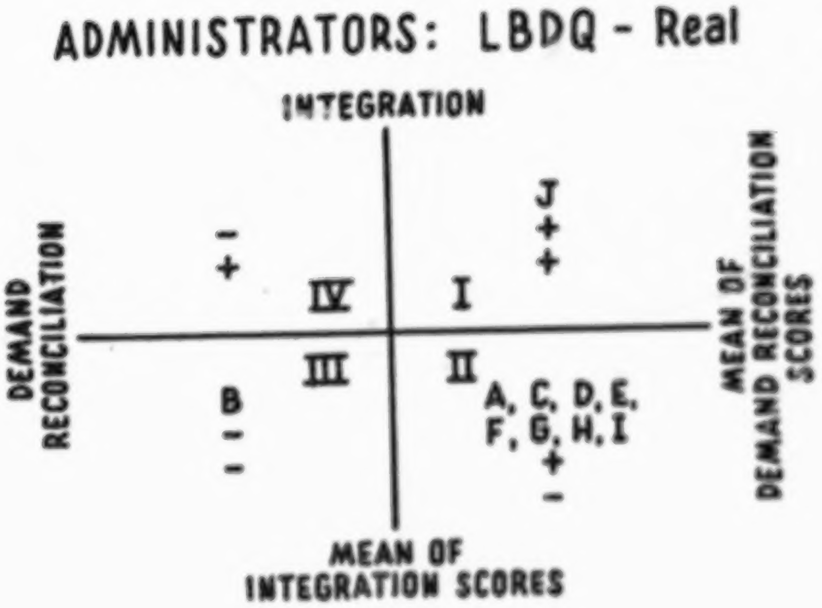
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ - Real
INTEGRATION
DEMAND RECONCILIATION
MEAN OF DEMAND RECONCILIATION SCORES
MEAN OF INTEGRATION SCORES
I
II
III
IV
J
+
+
+
-
B
-
-
A, C, D, E,
F, G, H, I
+
-

Figure 9. Quadrant analysis of the school administrators' LBDQ-Real scores on the leader behavior dimensions integration and demand reconciliation.

In the data presented in Figure 9 there was only one administrator, J, who described his behavior as being effective on both dimensions. Administrators A, C, D, E, F, G, H, and I described their behavior positive for the integration dimension and negative for demand reconciliation. These descriptions indicate that administrators may recognize that improvement is needed. Referring to these same administrators' LBDQ-Ideal scores, it is noted that in most cases the integration ideology was indicated positive. Administrator E, who on the LBDQ-Ideal scores for consideration and initiation of structure indicated a negative ideology, also scored negative on the LBDQ-Real dimension of consideration while scoring himself (LBDQ-Real) positively on the initiation of structure. It appears, at this point, that this particular administrator had a very poor leadership ideology which is also reflected in his self-image scores.

School board members indicated a high value in their ideology of the integration dimension. On the demand reconciliation dimension, all board members except in Districts C and D indicated a high value. Figure 10 illustrates the board members' scores in their respective quadrants.

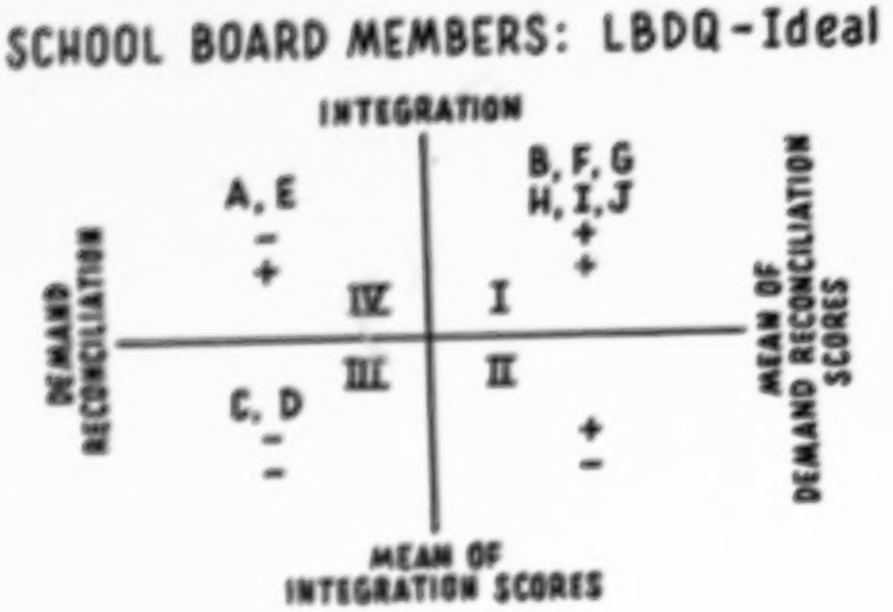
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS: LBDQ-Ideal
INTEGRATION
A, E
−
+
B, F, G
H, I, J
+
+
IV
I
III
II
C, D
−
−
+
−
DEMAND RECONCILIATION
MEAN OF DEMAND RECONCILIATION SCORES
MEAN OF INTEGRATION SCORES

Figure 10. Quadrant analysis of the school board members' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions integration and demand reconciliation.

In five cases out of ten, on the dimension integration, board members scored their administrators lower than administrators scored themselves on the LBDQ-Real. In one case out of ten this occurred on the dimension demand reconciliation. In fourteen out of twenty cases, board members either equaled or exceeded the leader behavior scores of the administrator. This finding would be expected and is in agreement with Halpin's previous research.

The ideology of teachers' union representatives for the dimension integration was five out of ten positive; for demand reconciliation it was six out of ten negative. In Districts A, E, F, and I both dimensions were scored negative.

An examination using the quadrant scheme for these dimensions will illustrate to what degree the teachers' union feels the administrators are meeting their expectations. Figure 11 gives dramatic evidence that administrators were not meeting the expectations held by the teachers' union representatives on either of these two dimensions. The LBDQ-Real scores for the dimensions integration and demand reconciliation were all negative.

It would appear from the data that, in school systems in which there is a high incidence of conflict between the school administrator and the teachers, a deficiency in one or the other of

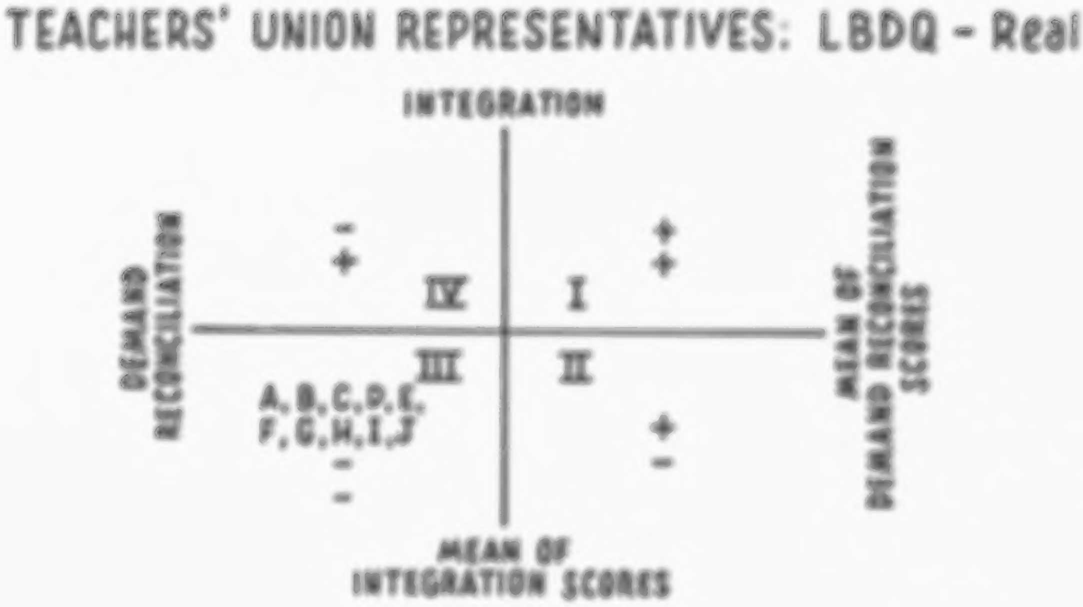
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES: LBDQ - Real
INTEGRATION
DEMAND RECONCILIATION
MEAN OF DEMAND RECONCILIATION SCORES
-
+
IV
I
+
+
III
II
A, B, C, D, E,
F, G, H, I, J
-
-
+
-
MEAN OF INTEGRATION SCORES

Figure 11. Quadrant analysis of the teachers' union representatives' LBDQ-Real scores on the leader behavior dimensions integration and demand reconciliation.

these leader behavior dimensions could be contributing to the conflict.

Examination of the next two dimensions of leader behavior provides an interesting contrast in ideology versus realism. Administrators in Districts A, C, G, H, and I agreed that a tolerance of freedom was desirable leader behavior. Administrators B, D, E, F, and J described their tolerance of freedom ideology to a lesser degree. On the dimension of production emphasis there was a split of six positive and four negative; i.e., six administrators (B, C, D, E, G, and H) rated this leader behavior dimension as being desirable in the ideal administrator. Administrators A, F, I, and J rated this dimension as being of lesser importance.

The lack of agreement by administrators on these two dimensions is illustrated in Figure 12.

The school board members agreed in only two out of ten cases that a school administrator should possess a high tolerance of freedom. Seven out of ten board members also thought that production emphasis by an administrator is desirable. The board members' LBDQ-Ideal scores are shown in Figure 13.

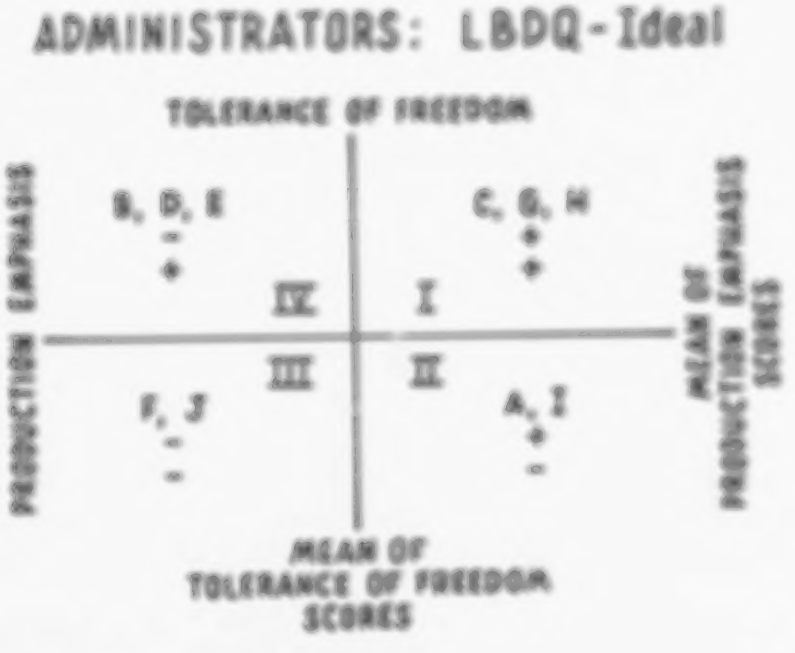
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ-Ideal
TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS
B, D, E
-
+
C, G, H
+
+
IV
I
III
II
F, J
-
-
A, I
+
-
MEAN OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS SCORES
MEAN OF TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM SCORES

Figure 12. Quadrant analysis of school administrators' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions tolerance of freedom and production emphasis.

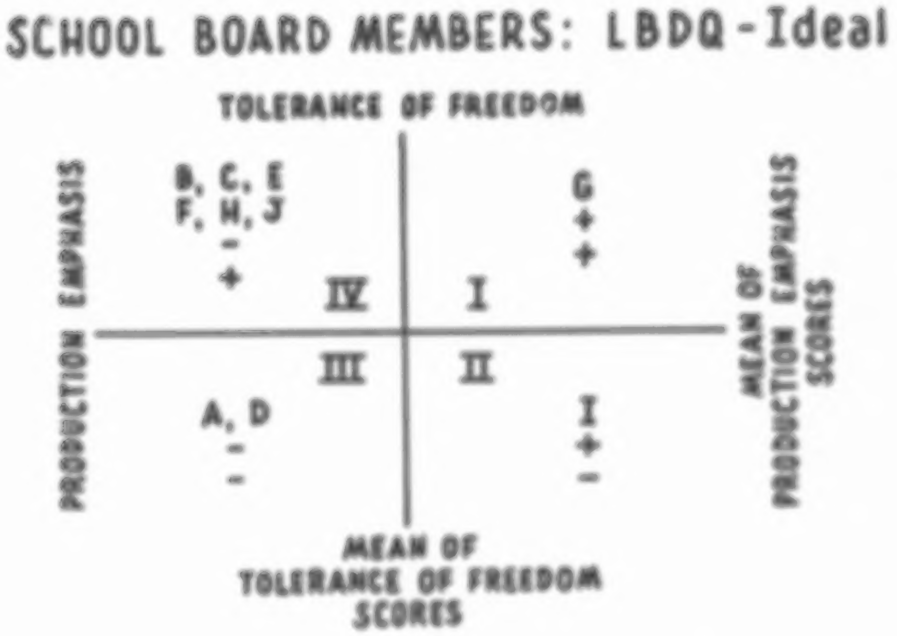

Figure 13. Quadrant analysis of school board members' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions tolerance of freedom and production emphasis.

In describing the leader behavior of their administrators on the tolerance of freedom dimension, school board members agreed or exceeded the self-image of the administrator five out of ten times. In five out of ten cases school boards rated the administrator less than he did himself. In Districts B and H, the administrator's self-image tended to agree with the LBDQ-Real scores rated by board members. In Districts B, E, F, G, H, and J board members rated their administrators on the production emphasis dimension as being better than administrators rated themselves. In District G board members rated the administrator positive. Overall, the board members described their administrators on the dimension of production emphasis as being less effective than they would hope to see in the ideal administrator. This result occurred in nine out of ten districts. Figure 14 illustrates the board members' LBDQ-Real scores.

Teachers' union representatives indicated in seven out of ten school systems that they felt it was very important for a school administrator to rate highly on the tolerance of freedom dimension, and in seven out of ten districts they had negative attitudes toward production emphasis (Figure 15). The negative attitude toward

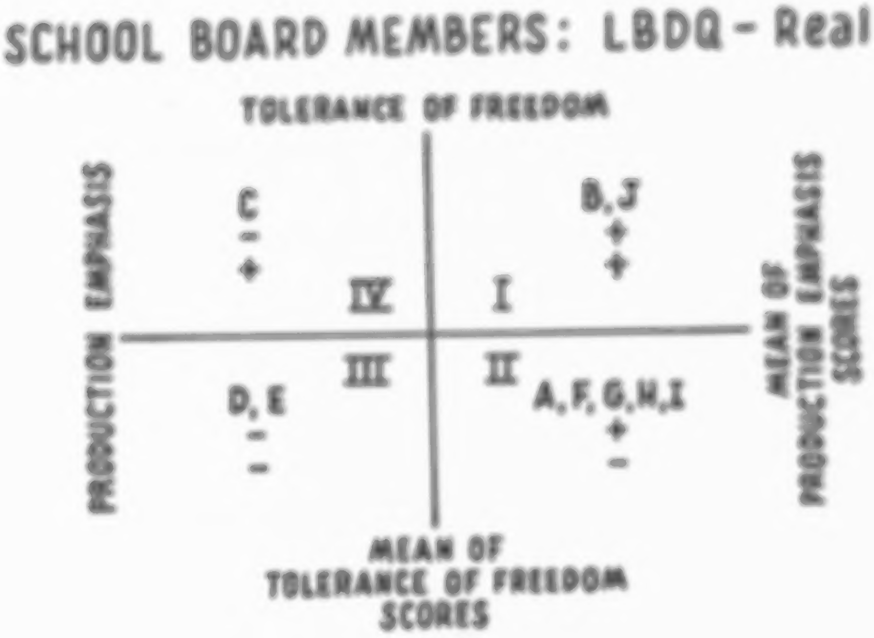
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS: LBDQ - Real
TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS
C
-
+
B, J
+
+
IV
I
III
II
D, E
-
-
A, F, G, H, I
+
-
MEAN OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS SCORES
MEAN OF TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM SCORES

Figure 14. Quadrant analysis of school board members' LBDQ-Real scores on the leader behavior dimensions tolerance of freedom and production emphasis.

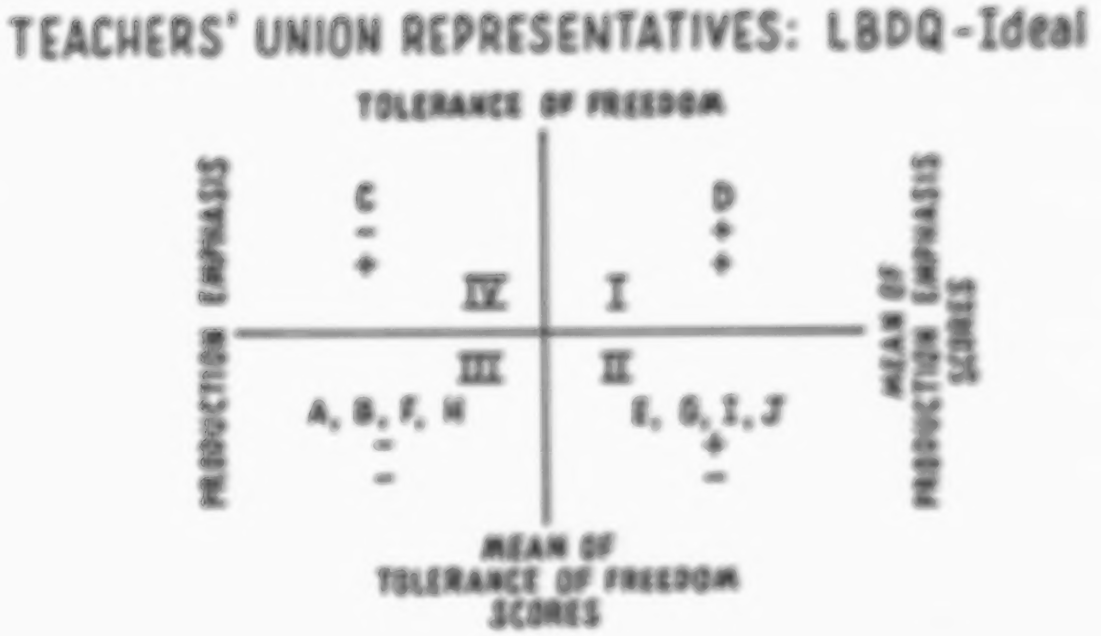
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES: LBDQ-Ideal
TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS
C
-
+
D
+
+
IV
I
III
II
A, B, F, H
-
-
E, G, I, J
+
-
MEAN OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS SCORES
MEAN OF TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM SCORES

Figure 15. Quadrant analysis of teachers' union representatives' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions tolerance of freedom and production emphasis.

production emphasis indicates that, generally speaking, in districts in which there is conflict between administrators and teachers' unions there will be resistance to applied pressure for productive output. This is not to say that teachers do not feel the need for educational accomplishment but rather that they will resist a leader who resorts to applying pressure to achieve the goal. This subject will be discussed more fully in a later chapter.

Figure 16 presents the LBDQ-Real quadrant analysis for teachers' union representatives on the two dimensions.

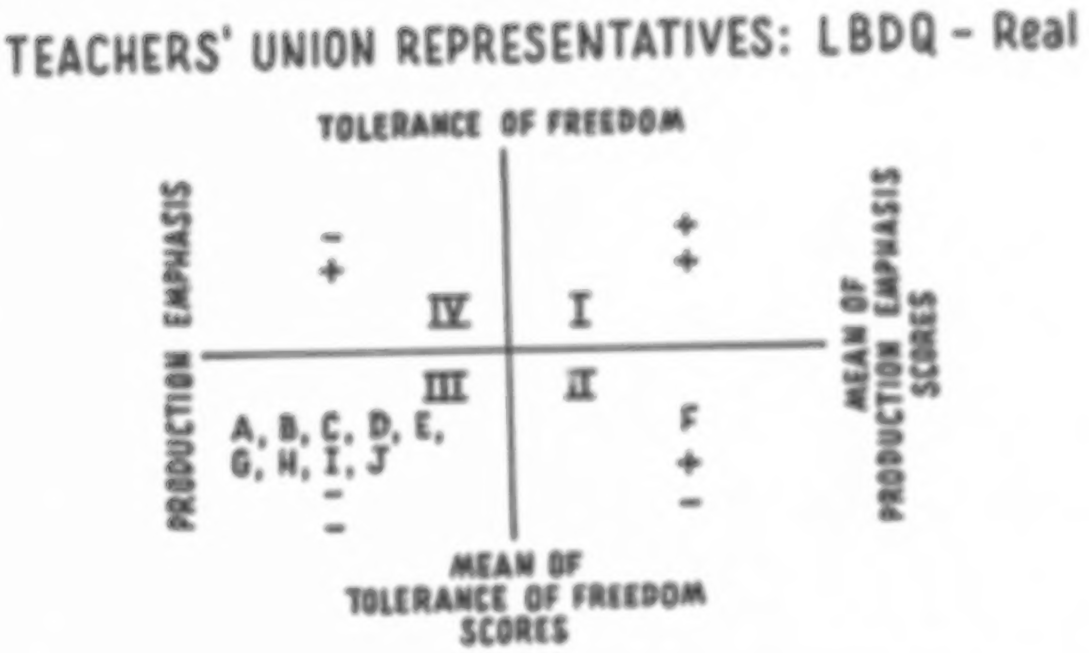
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES: LBDQ - Real
TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS
- +
+ +
IV
I
III
II
A, B, C, D, E,
G, H, I, J
- -
F
+ -
MEAN OF TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM SCORES
MEAN OF PRODUCTION EMPHASIS SCORES

Figure 16. Quadrant analysis of teachers' union representatives' LBDQ-Real scores on the leader behavior dimensions tolerance of freedom and production emphasis.

Board members placed a higher value on the tolerance of freedom dimension than on production emphasis. When board members described their administrators on production emphasis, seven out of ten times they scored the administrators negative. This result could be interpreted as showing the degree of importance board members place on production emphasis in the leader behavior of their administrators. Administrators, on the other hand, regarded production emphasis as being a positive value in six out of the ten school systems. When describing their own production emphasis behavior, they scored themselves negative seven out of ten times, and on the tolerance of freedom they scores positive six out of ten. This result would indicate that administrators regard their real leader behavior, production emphasis, less than the ideal.

Production emphasis appears to be of more concern to board members than either administrators or teachers' union representatives.

The next two leader behavior dimensions are tolerance of uncertainty and predictive accuracy.

The administrators in school systems B, G, and I on the LBDQ-Ideal scored the tolerance of uncertainty positive, while

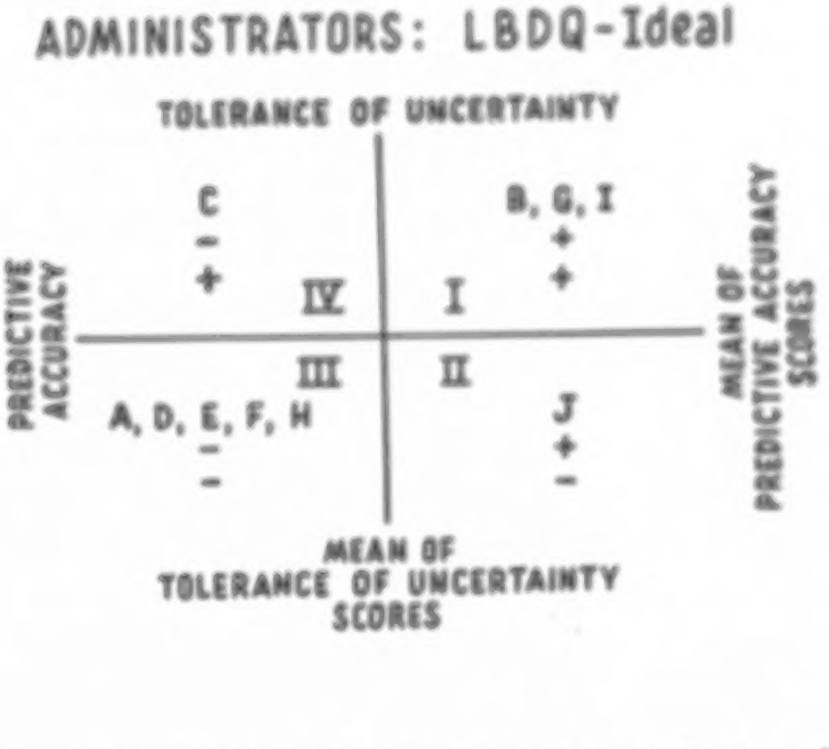
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ-Ideal
TOLERANCE OF UNCERTAINTY
PREDICTIVE ACCURACY
C
-
+
IV
I
B, G, I
+
+
III
II
A, D, E, F, H
-
-
J
+
-
MEAN OF PREDICTIVE ACCURACY SCORES
MEAN OF TOLERANCE OF UNCERTAINTY SCORES

Figure 17. Quadrant analysis of school administrators' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions tolerance of uncertainty and predictive accuracy.

administrators in school systems A, D, E, F, and H were below the mean, indicating that they regarded a tolerance of uncertainty as not being critical for an ideal administrator.

The last two dimensions to be defined by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire are representation and role assumption. Representation, it will be recalled, is the determination of the degree to which the leader shall act as the "representative of the group." In the present study this was interpreted to mean what the administrator's leader behavior would be when meeting with the school board on behalf of the teachers.

The second dimension is role assumption. This dimension seeks to determine to what degree the administrator exercises the leadership rather than surrendering it to others.

In scoring these two dimensions it became apparent that the ideology of the school administrators and teachers' union representatives gave a low rating for the role assumption dimension. In Districts A, C, D, E, G, I, and J there was a positive image by school administrators of what the ideal leader behavior should be on the role assumption dimension.

On the dimension of representation administrators in all districts but B, F, and H had a positive image of the ideal leader behavior. Looking at the two dimensions another way, seven out of ten administrators viewed the representation dimension positive and seven out of ten viewed role assumption negative.

The administrators' ideology on the dimensions of representation and role assumption are presented in Figure 18.

It would be expected that administrators who had negative ideologies on dimensions of leader behavior would tend to exhibit a behavioral pattern which would reflect that ideology. Six administrators out of ten districts described their leader behavior on the representation dimension as being positive. All other administrators' self-images of their real behavior received negative scores.

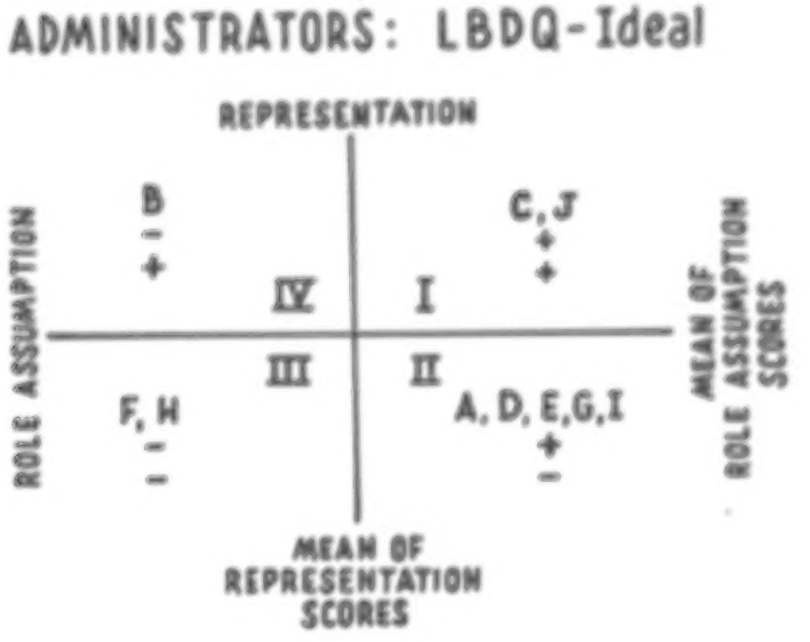
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ-Ideal
REPRESENTATION
ROLE ASSUMPTION
B
-
+
C, J
+
+
IV
I
III
II
F, H
-
-
A, D, E, G, I
+
-
MEAN OF ROLE ASSUMPTION SCORES
MEAN OF REPRESENTATION SCORES

Figure 18. Quadrant analysis of school administrators' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions representation and role assumption.

If these same results were also reflected in the scores of school board members and also the teachers' union representatives, there probably would not be conflict within the area encompassed by these two dimensions of leader behavior.

Examination of the school boards' ideology concerning the dimension of role assumption reflects a similar opinion. In nine out of the ten districts, board members described the ideal leader behavior positive. This being true, if the school administrator's behavior approaches his ideological concepts, he probably will not be confronted with conflict with the school board members.

On the dimension of representation, seven out of ten school board members described the ideal administrator higher than the mean. When the LBDQ-Real scores of board members were examined for representation, the administrators were scored positive in all districts except A, D, and E. Only in District A did the board members score their administrator negative on the dimension of role assumption. District A scored their administrator negative on both dimensions.

A quadrant presentation of the board members' LBDQ-Ideal and LBDQ-Real scores is shown in Figures 19 and 20.

If conflict exists between school administrators and teachers' unions on either the representation or role assumption dimension,

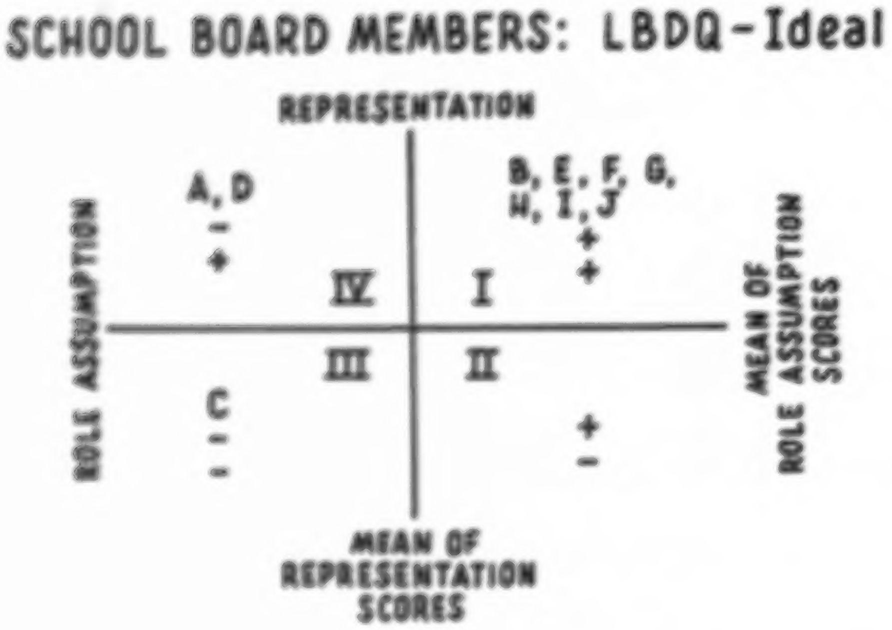
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS: LBDQ-Ideal
REPRESENTATION
A, D
-
+
B, E, F, G,
H, I, J
+
+
IV
I
III
II
C
-
-
+
-
ROLE ASSUMPTION
MEAN OF ROLE ASSUMPTION SCORES
MEAN OF REPRESENTATION SCORES

Figure 19. Quadrant analysis of school board members' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions representation and role assumption.

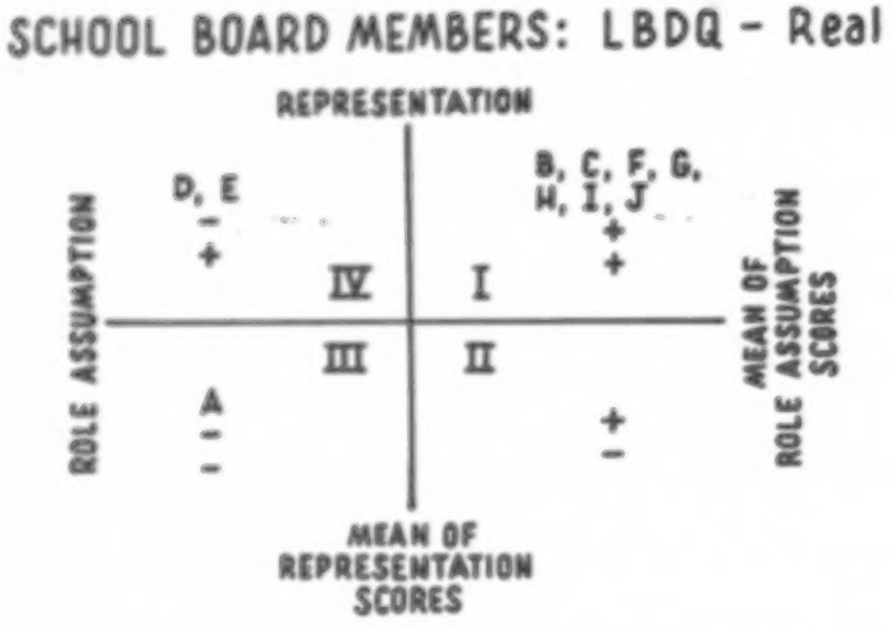
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS: LBDQ - Real
REPRESENTATION
D, E
-
+
B, C, F, G,
H, I, J
+
+
IV
I
III
II
A
-
-
+
-
ROLE ASSUMPTION
MEAN OF ROLE ASSUMPTION SCORES
MEAN OF REPRESENTATION SCORES

Figure 20. Quadrant analysis of school board members' LBDQ-Real scores on the leader behavior dimensions representation and role assumption.

the first clue likely to appear would be as a significant difference in their respective ideologies. Examination of their respective scores reveals that administrators matched teachers' union ideologies five times out of ten on role assumption. Some of the scores were negative, but both the administrator and the teachers' union role assumption were in agreement.

For the dimension of representation (LBDQ-Real), school administrators and teachers' union representatives agreed only three out of ten times. On the dimension of role assumption (LBDQ-Real), there was agreement only three out of ten times. It had been assumed, prior to administering the LBDQ, that the one dimension which would have been of great significance to the teachers' union was the representation dimension. This assumption was proven to be in error. Perhaps the findings can best be explained by a remark made by a teachers' union representative when he said, "We'll do our own representing with the board of education. We tried it the other way with the superintendent supposedly looking out for us and it just didn't work."

A comparison of the LBDQ-Ideal for school administrators and teachers' union representatives is presented in Figures 21 and 22.

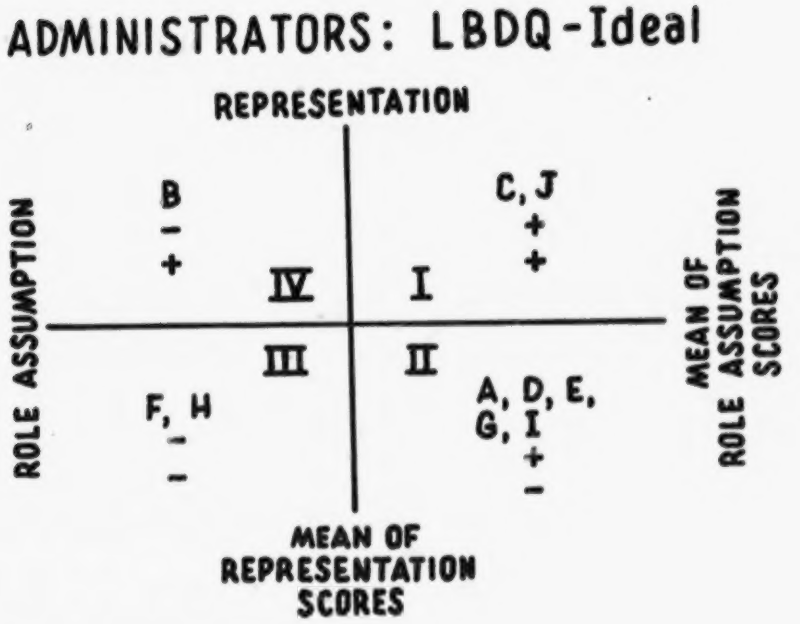
ADMINISTRATORS: LBDQ-Ideal
REPRESENTATION
ROLE ASSUMPTION
MEAN OF ROLE ASSUMPTION SCORES
MEAN OF REPRESENTATION SCORES
B
- +
C, J
+ +
IV
I
III
II
F, H
- -
A, D, E, G, I
+ -

Figure 21. Quadrant analysis of school administrators' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions representation and role assumption.

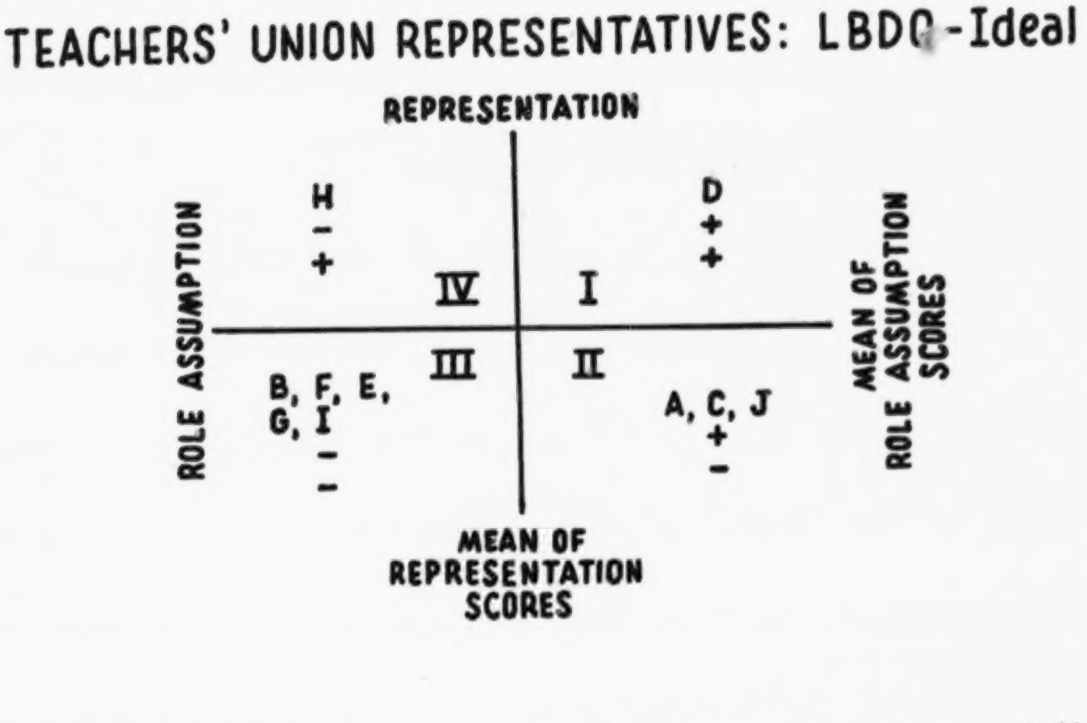
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES: LBDQ-Ideal
REPRESENTATION
ROLE ASSUMPTION
MEAN OF ROLE ASSUMPTION SCORES
MEAN OF REPRESENTATION SCORES
H
- +
D
+ +
IV
I
III
II
B, F, E, G, I
- -
A, C, J
+ -

Figure 22. Quadrant analysis of teachers' union representatives' LBDQ-Ideal scores on the leader behavior dimensions representation and role assumption.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

The purpose of this research was to study the leader behavior of school administrators engaged in conflict with teachers' unions to determine whether the styles or forms of leader behavior were in any way contributing to the presence of conflict. Conflict between school administrators and teachers' unions was brought into focus, partly as a result of enabling legislation which allowed employees in the public sector to organize for the purpose of collective negotiations with their employers. As a result of this development many educators now feel that theories of educational administration will undergo significant changes.

Part of the conflict is related to the power struggle being carried on between the rival National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers. School administrators have often been caught in the middle of this controversy and have found themselves a convenient opponent for both groups. There have been, however, forms of conflict directed at administrators which cannot be attributed wholly to a power struggle between two rival organizations. Some of the complaints voiced by teachers' union representatives were that school administrators were "unapproachable" or that the organizational climate imposed by the administrator was "stifling" or that the administrator was "controlled" by the school board. Administrators were accused of such things as coercion, interfering with teachers' organizations, discrimination, domination, and refusing to bargain or negotiate with employees. In hearings, the LMB has striven to eliminate whatever abuses and misunderstandings there may have been in an attempt to keep educational processes moving.

The basic hypothesis of this research was that clashes between school administrators and teachers' unions are due, in large part, to the conflicting perceptions of the school administrator's leader behavior, as described by the administrator himself, the school board, and members of the teachers' union.

It was expected that there would be some significant differences in how the administrator and the teachers' union representatives would describe the administrator's leader behavior.

The specific hypotheses to be tested were:

1. School administrators, school board members, and teachers' union representatives will tend to agree in their

descriptions of what constitutes ideal leader behavior of an administrator.

2. School administrators and school board members will tend to disagree with teachers' union representatives on their descriptions of an administrator.
3. Teachers' union representatives will describe their administrator's leader behavior as being less effective than will either the administrator or school board members.
4. School board members' descriptions of the leader behavior of their administrator will tend to be the same as the descriptions they will give to describe the leader behavior of the ideal type of administrator.
5. School board members will tend to describe the leader behavior of their school administrator as being more effective than the administrator will describe his own leader behavior.

The research was also important since, as a result of collective negotiations, practices in school administration are undergoing revolutionary changes. The traditional roles of school administrators and teachers' organizations are in the process of being redefined. The incidence of conflict during the early stages of this transitory period was an indication that a serious problem existed which should be answered realistically. In order to make the correct diagnosis factual information was required.

As a preliminary step to studying the leader behavior of school administrators in conflict with teachers' unions, a review of the literature was made. The review sought out leadership theories and related research. The historical development of the interest in leadership was traced. It was found that empirical research on the subject of leadership is a relatively new undertaking. The Ohio State University leadership studies, upon which the present research was based, were discussed. It was also necessary to review the subject of conflict and conflict resolution. The review determined that surprisingly little effort has been devoted to developing a sociology of conflict and conflict resolution.

The plan of the study required that each school administrator included in the sample had to be experiencing a degree of conflict with the teachers' union. Identification of the school districts where conflict was present was provided by newspaper reports and by interviews with educators, union officials, and Labor Mediation Board members.

Letters were then sent to twenty-six school administrators in districts thus identified, explaining the nature of the research and asking for their cooperation. From the original twenty-six possibilities, only eleven administrators indicated a willingness to participate. One of the eleven was selected to familiarize the researcher with problems and procedures relating to the questionnaire. The information concerning the leader behavior of this administrator is not reported in the research data.

The following facts were considered important to the study: (1) Administrators were faced with a type of conflict never before experienced in public schools. (2) There has been a growing militancy on the part of teachers' organizations. (3) The legal requirements established by enactment of Public Act 379 have seemingly produced a new climate for interpersonal relations with teachers' groups. (4) The skills required to function effectively in the arena of labor relations were not included in the professional training of present-day school administrators. (5) There is an increasing urgency for conflict resolution in a more complex social setting. (6) The supply of professionally trained teachers is at an all-time low in relation to the demand and has aided teachers in the creation of an opposing power bloc.

The test instrument is an outgrowth of an earlier investigation of leader behavior conducted by Andrew Halpin and the Ohio State University leadership studies. The questionnaire is called the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Form XII) and is designed to describe twelve dimensions of leader behavior. In accordance with the research design, the school administrator, school board members, and representatives of the teachers' union were to respond to the questionnaire. Each participant was asked to answer the questionnaire twice. The first time the questionnaire was answered the respondents were asked to describe the leader behavior of an ideal administrator. This questionnaire was designated LBDQ-Ideal. The second time the questionnaire was answered each of the three groups was required to describe the leader behavior of the school administrator (this included the administrator's description of his own leader behavior). This questionnaire was designated LBDQ-Real.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire contains 100 items. The school administrator, school board members, and representatives of the teachers' union comprised the sample. School board members' and teachers' union representatives' scores were averaged within their respective groups to reflect one score for each group. This allowed a one-to-one comparison and enabled a triangulation analysis of the three groups.

The dimensions of leader behavior described by the questionnaire were: (1) representation, (2) demand reconciliation, (3) tolerance of uncertainty, (4) persuasiveness, (5) initiation of structure, (6) tolerance of freedom, (7) role assumption, (8) consideration, (9) production emphasis, (10) predictive accuracy, (11) integration, and (12) superior orientation.

Scores were tabulated for each respondent's questionnaires for both the LBDQ-Ideal and LBDQ-Real. A third set of scores were created by subtracting the LBDQ-Real scores from the LBDQ-Ideal scores. These created scores were called "D" (difference) scores.

Several tests were made to determine whether the three groups agree as to what constitutes an ideal administrator and whether they agree on their descriptions of the administrator.

Generally speaking, school administrators, school board members, and teachers' union representatives described the ideal leader behavior in a similar way. The fact that they were in partial agreement regarding ideal leader behavior improves the chances for conflict resolution. It was hypothesized that descriptions of what the administrator's real leader behavior would be would differ in the three groups. The data supported this hypothesis. Teachers' union representatives, when describing the leader behavior of the school administrator, strongly disagreed with descriptions of the leader behavior given by school board representatives. This finding was not totally unexpected. The extent to which it differed from the mean was far greater than had been expected. Earlier research determined that there was a tendency of school board members and teachers' groups to rate the leader behavior of an administrator oppositely. This finding supported the theory that school administrators differentiated in their behavior.

In the present research there was such a variation from the mean in the description of leader behavior by teachers' union representatives that it would tend to indicate the leader behavior of the administrator does in fact contribute to conflict. There is some validity in the observation that different people or groups will view situations and circumstances differently.

It was also discovered that teachers' union representatives will describe their administrator's leader behavior as less effective than will either the administrator or board members. This finding supported one of the hypotheses.

It was hypothesized that school board members' descriptions of the leader behavior of the school administrator would tend to be the same as the description they would give in describing the leader behavior of an ideal type of administrator. However, when this hypothesis was tested, it was rejected. This would indicate that school board members are not particularly defensive of the leader behavior of their school administrator.

Analysis of the data supported the hypothesis that school board members would tend to describe the leader behavior of their school administrator as being more effective than the administrator would describe his own behavior. The data supported the hypothesis and suggested that administrators view themselves as further from the ideal than do their board members.

A quadrant analysis of the data was made (based on Halpin's quadrant scheme). The quadrant analysis enabled the twelve dimensions of leader behavior to be divided into two groups. One group comprised leader behavior dimensions which would tend to be directed toward teachers. The second group of leader dimensions were generally directed toward the school board. Leader behavior of the ten school administrators was found to differ from one dimension to another, with no clear-cut pattern. The leader behavior of the administrators was generally described by the teachers' union representatives as being ineffectual. The findings supported Halpin's earlier research that superiors and subordinates tend to evaluate leader behavior oppositely. This result indicates that the different group attitudes impose a measure of role conflict on administrators. The fact that boards of education hire and fire administrators may be all the reason an administrator needs to differentiate in his behavior.

The unanimity of the leader behavior descriptions given by the teachers' union representatives throughout the ten districts was more significant than had been anticipated.

The evidence indicated that administrators saw themselves as being less effective than is desirable.

The most crucial aspect of conflict between administrators and teachers' union representatives was described as not being the lack of professional preparation of administrators in the field of collective negotiations as much as the delimiting factor of their ineffectual leader behavior.

There have been many hurriedly organized programs designed primarily to acquaint administrators with the law which established collective negotiations, the mechanics of collective negotiating, state agencies which have an active role to play in the process, and other subjects related to labor relations. The relationship of leader behavior and the presence of conflict has not received the attention it deserves in the collective negotiations process.

One of the problems encountered by administrators is the dual role in which they find themselves. Behavior differentiation is an administrator's way of life.

Not all of the leader behavior dimensions were found to be significant in a conflict situation. The dimensions superior orientation and representation, for example, were not significant. Other dimensions which were found to be of a lesser importance to teachers were tolerance of uncertainty, predictive accuracy, role assumption, and persuasiveness.

There was an indication that, while salary was one of the things that triggered conflict in collective negotiations, there were usually underlying causes which were of greater significance. Ineffectual leader behavior was often mentioned as one of the leading causes.

PART TWO

IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE THEORY AND PRACTICE

CHAPTER VI

ADMINISTRATORS' LEADER BEHAVIOR AND CONFLICT

Leader Behavior in Relation to Conflict

The preceding chapter reported the results of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaires. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the significance of leader behavior in relation to conflict with teachers' unions. It is interesting to note that in a recently released text on the subject of professional negotiations the subject of conflict between administrators and teacher organizations is not mentioned. The text does, however, contain a wealth of material dealing with the mechanics of professional negotiation--the legal status, elements which make up professional negotiations agreements, the administrator's role in professional negotiations, and other related topics.

The most crucial aspect of collective negotiations has not been with the mechanics of collective negotiations, although this is certainly vital, but rather with leader behavior. Today, educational administration is involved in an emotionally charged atmosphere. The decision-making process, which administrators had previously practiced, is now open to more criticism. The so-called "good old days" for administrators have disappeared from the present scene. Teachers' groups are giving voice to their opinions and demanding to be heard on everything from wages, hours, and working conditions to policy-making and textbook selection.

As a result of the changes that have taken place in collective negotiations and, in an attempt to bring administrators up to date, seminars in procedures and techniques have been conducted by labor relations professors. Government-sponsored agencies have sought to interpret the new collective bargaining law, and officials of the Labor Mediation Board have explained their function in the resolution of disputes.

Each and every one of these events has been of value to educational administrators. Although these groups may aid in the resolving of conflict after it has reached the point where compromise is necessary, it appears that the cause is being neglected and only the effect is being acted upon. To what degree can the process of collective negotiations be successful if there is ineffectual leader behavior on the part of a school administrator? While it is a subject for additional research, the leader behavior of the teachers' union representatives is also important to the conflict resolution process of collective negotiations.

Administrators have been cast in a dual role. The following is an excerpt from the 1963-64 National Education Association handbook Guidelines for Professional Negotiation:

> [The superintendent's] role in professional negotiation is a dual one. He is the executive officer of the board, responsible for administering adopted policy. At the same time, he has a responsibility as a member and leader of the professional staff. . . .[1]

The administrator has been somewhat by-passed in many of the collective negotiations procedures; i.e., the teachers' union representatives have often dealt directly with the school board. Administrator duality, as expressed by the previous quotation, has not been in all cases evenly divided. Duality implies that the administrator would be of equal importance to the school board and to the teachers' union in the collective negotiations process. Collective negotiations, to date, have not allowed the administrator to pursue an effective leadership role. This could be due, in part, to a basic ineffectiveness of the administrator or to the collective negotiations model being followed. In either case the administrator is not functioning properly. In the next chapter this subject will be pursued further and a procedure suggested to improve the administrator's leader role.

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[1] Guidelines for Professional Negotiation (Washington: Office of Professional Development and Welfare, National Education Association, 1963), p. 14.

In discussing the changes taking place in school administration, Lieberman and Moskow point out:

> There are several misconceptions concerning the impact of collective negotiations on the role of school administrators. One is that collective negotiations downgrades the role of school administrators or reduces the need for effective school administrators. Nothing could be more erroneous. Collective negotiations puts a higher premium on effective administration than the traditional relationships between teachers and administrators ever did.[1]

It still cannot be concluded that administrators in conflict districts, on which this research is based, are ineffectual. The data do, however, dramatically emphasize that an administrator's behavior, as appraised by the three groups, does not converge into a single description of his real behavior. Each group evaluated the effect of differentiated behavior, and it cannot be said that any one description is more valid than the other. Each is valid from its own frame of reference.

The data confirmed that several leader behavior dimensions did not have significance in conflict districts. These dimensions were superior orientation and representation. The relationship of an administrator to the school board (superior orientation), as seen by the teachers' union representatives, was of lesser consequence. In a conflict situation this finding is interesting because the way an administrator relates to his school board could certainly have far-reaching effects upon teachers, who are in subordinate positions. It can only be surmised that teachers feel that under the new law they are protected and that what the administrator does in his interpersonal relations with the school board is his own concern.

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[1] Myron Lieberman and Michael Moskow, Collective Negotiations for Teachers (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1966), pp. 354-55.

The second leader behavior dimension, which was revealed as not being significant, was representation. Neither the LBDQ-Ideal nor the LBDQ-Real scores showed significance. This finding was not expected. In the traditional educational system (prior to collective negotiations) teachers had to rely on their administrator to represent them to the school board. Considering the overall climate of educational administration, effective administrators did a reasonably good job of representing teachers. However, there were undoubtedly some administrators who, either through undue concern for themselves or through fear of reaction on the part of school boards, did very little to represent teachers. It would be this type of administrator who would lead a teachers' union representative to explain his lack of interest in the representation dimension. "We'll do our own representing with the board of education," he said. "We tried it the other way with the superintendent supposedly looking out for us and it just didn't work."

These were only two leader behavior dimensions out of the twelve identified by the LBDQ. The other dimensions were found to have significant differences in the descriptions of the administrators, by school board members, teachers' union representatives, and the administrators themselves. Within the ten districts there was considerable variation concerning the teachers' union representatives' descriptions of particular administrators as related to the specific dimensions. For example, administrator B was described by the teachers' union representatives as being highly effective (++) on the dimensions representation and role assumption. The same administrator, however, was described on the dimensions consideration and initiation of structure as being ineffective (--). On the dimensions tolerance of uncertainty and predictive accuracy, and superior orientation and persuasiveness he was scored in Quadrant II (+-). The administrator in this quadrant is characterized as being undisturbed by uncertainties (tolerance of uncertainty) and as having a low ability to anticipate or predict forthcoming events (predictive accuracy). His relationship with the school board members is described as being satisfactory (from the teachers' vantage point), while he is low in his ability to use persuasion effectively. He is least effective (--) on the dimensions consideration and initiation of structure, integration and demand reconciliation, and tolerance of freedom and production emphasis.

No two administrators followed exactly the same pattern. While an administrator may not be meeting the expectations of teachers' unions regarding his leader behavior on a specific dimension, he could be rated high on another dimension. Nearly all the administrators were described by teachers' union representatives, on six out of the twelve dimensions, as being ineffectual. These dimensions are: (1) consideration and initiation of structure, (2) integration and demand reconciliation, and (3) tolerance of freedom and production emphasis. While the other dimensions are important, they appear to be of lesser importance, in light of the data, to the overall descriptions of leader behavior.

The division of the leader behavior dimensions, in terms of their basic orientation, was thoroughly investigated. The first three combinations of leader behavior dimensions of the administrator are directed toward the teacher. The combinations which appear to have lesser importance to the teachers (tolerance of uncertainty and predictive accuracy, and representation and role assumption) are directed toward the school board.

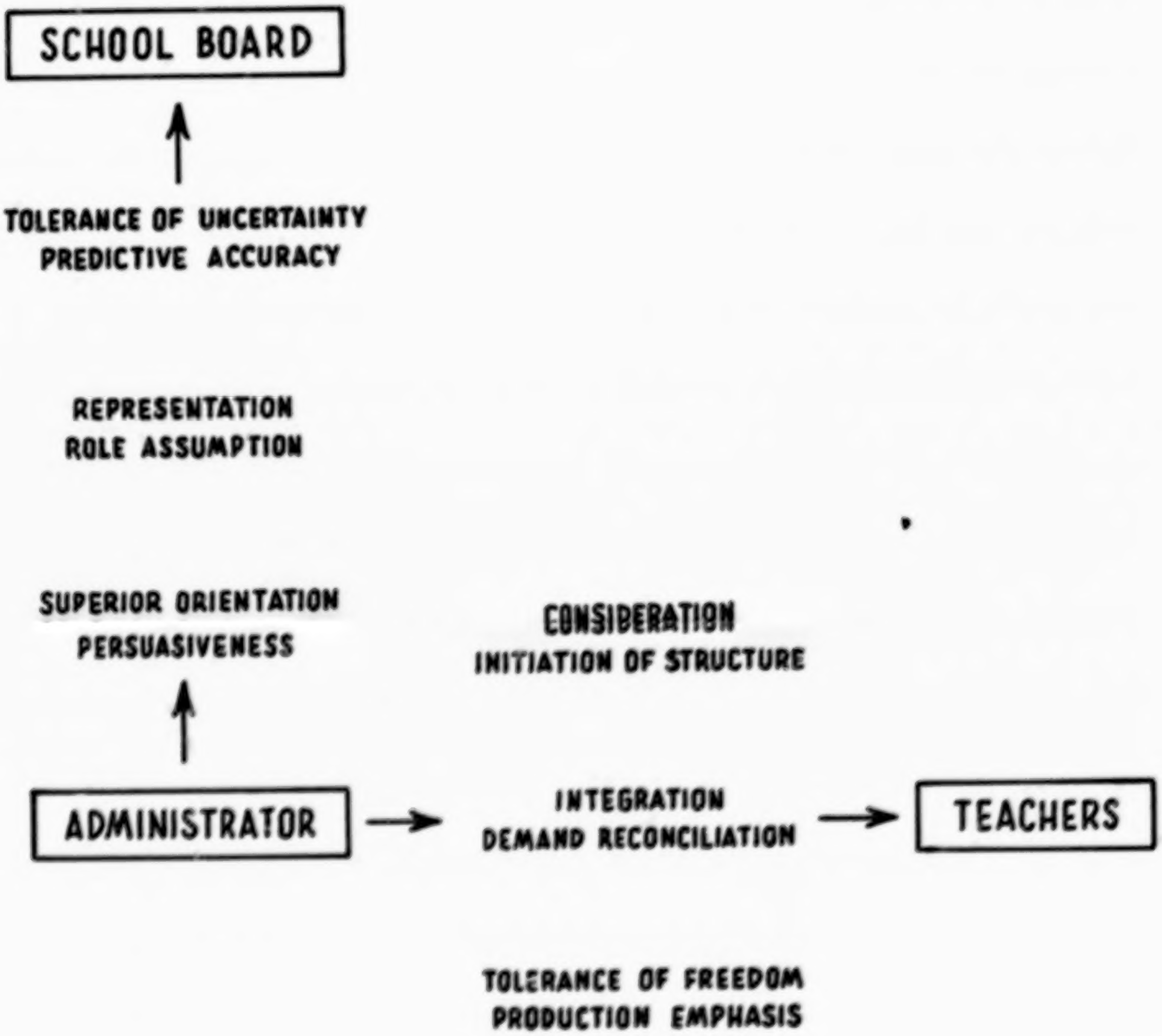
SCHOOL BOARD
TOLERANCE OF UNCERTAINTY
PREDICTIVE ACCURACY
REPRESENTATION
ROLE ASSUMPTION
SUPERIOR ORIENTATION
PERSUASIVENESS
CONSIDERATION
INITIATION OF STRUCTURE
ADMINISTRATOR
INTEGRATION
DEMAND RECONCILIATION
TEACHERS
TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM
PRODUCTION EMPHASIS

Figure 23. Orientation of leader behavior.

In an article which appeared in the Christian Science Monitor, Hugh A. Doherty of the Alberta (Canada) Teachers' Association, reflecting on the causes of strikes which have occurred in his province during the past twenty-one years, said, "Salary triggered the action initially but there was always more to it."[1] This same observation was made by several of the teachers' union representatives who were interviewed in the course of this research. One example of an administrator's behavior in a face-to-face meeting with a union representative was described as ending "just short of fisticuffs." Whether or not the administrator would have actually carried out this action is difficult to say, but at least the implication was strong. The emotions of both the administrators and teachers' union representatives have been running high. The pattern of collective negotiations to date has placed the school administrator in an adversary role. Labor relations "experts" have stated that this is the only way collective negotiations can function. If the experts are right that collective negotiation is essentially an adversary relationship for the participants, then prescribed codes of behavior will be more or less dictated by established precedents.

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[1] Lucia Monat, "Teachers on the March," Christian Science Monitor, August 6, 1965.

If, on the other hand, there is a certain uniqueness to collective negotiations in the field of education, then precedents established in the private sector of collective bargaining may not be applicable. An entirely new pattern may have to be designed and accepted by those engaged in educational negotiating processes.

In the previous chapter the data established that there are wide differences in the perceived behavior (LBDQ-Real) of school administrators. The ideal leader behavior expected of a school administrator was found to be nearly the same in the opinions of school administrators, school board members, and the teacher's union representatives. As long as there is general agreement among the three groups concerning an administrator's leader behavior, the next major task is to encourage conditions which will bring about appropriate behavioral changes.

Topological Analysis for Conflict Resolution

Lewin, Coch, and French conducted experiments designed to show "the efficacy of group discussion and of participation in group decisions in the lowering of resistance to change."[1] Floyd Mann conducted research on "feedback training" in which the results of research into "attitudes towards authority and leadership behavior within the group effectively brings about a change in [these] attitudes."[1] A topological representation (Figure 24) of the conflict between school administrators and teachers' unions will perhaps shed further light on the problem.

---

[1] Warren Bennis et al. (eds.), The Planning of Change (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962), p. 172.

A school administrator (A) who sincerely wants to eliminate conflict with the teachers' union representatives (Tu) will find that certain barriers (B) must be overcome. The barriers, in this case, are the leader behavior (LBDQ-Real) dimensions (C, IS, I, DR, TF, and PE). In the ideal (LBDQ-Ideal) descriptions both the school administrators and the teachers' union representatives were in general agreement (no significant differences over ten of the twelve dimensions of leader behavior). Only the dimensions initiation of structure and role assumption were found to have significant differences on the ideal scale.

Lewin,[2] in Resolving Social Conflicts, points out that conflicts generally do not become really serious unless there is a divergent meaning of the factors which influence harmony. In the topological representation under consideration there is considerable

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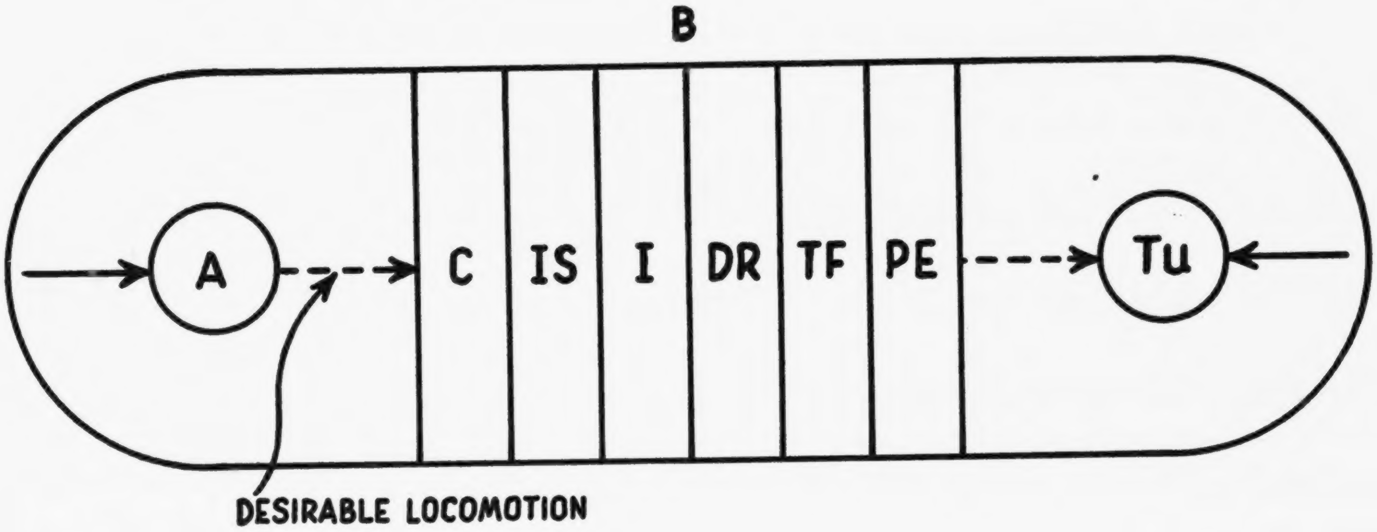
[1] Ibid.

[2] Lewin, op. cit.


B
A
C
IS
I
DR
TF
PE
Tu
DESIRABLE LOCOMOTION

A: Administrator

Tu: Teachers' union representatives

C: Consideration

IS: Initiation of structure

I: Integration

DR: Demand reconciliation

TF: Tolerance of freedom

PE: Production emphasis

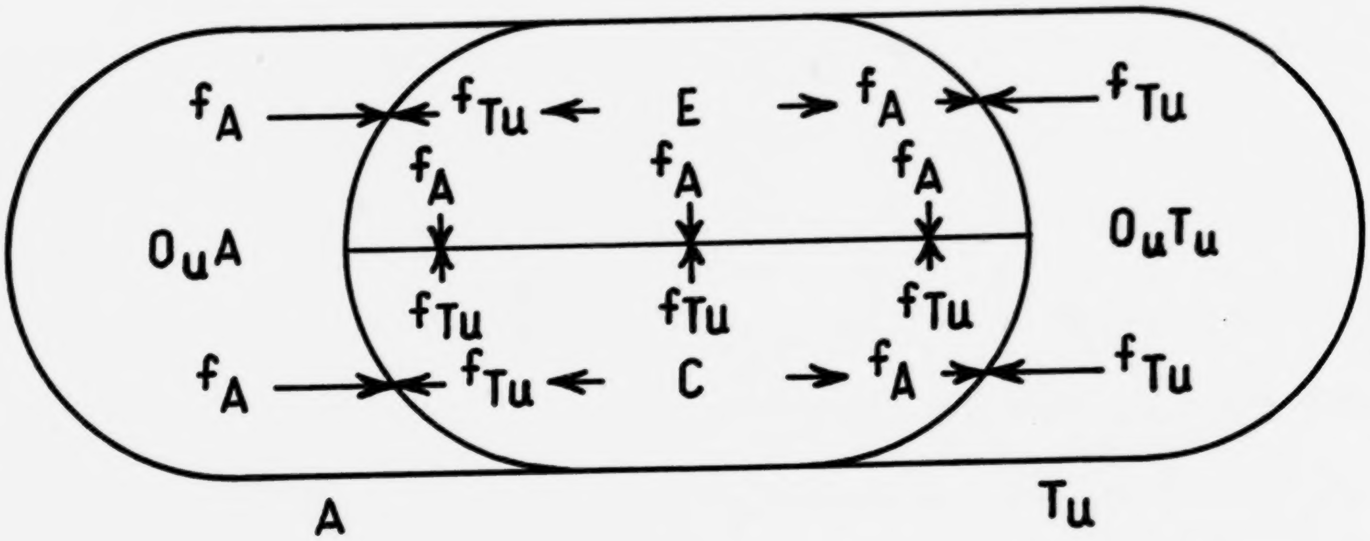
B: Barriers between A and Tu

Figure 24. Leader behavior barriers to conflict resolution.

divergence. Before conflict resolution can effectively take place, the administrator (A) must find ways to overcome the barriers (B) to the satisfaction of the teachers' union representatives (Tu). Because of the complexity of the situation it would be difficult to say how much emphasis should be placed upon improvement in a specific dimension. As an administrator's leader behavior was modified, in the tolerance of freedom dimension (due to a possible "halo" effect), he may find that his leader behavior in the production emphasis dimension has become more acceptable. This development is only speculative but would be a decided possibility.

Another topological representation of the conflict illustrates areas of concerns shared by administrator and teachers' union representatives (Figure 25). In this illustration both the administrator and the teachers' union representatives would benefit from a lessening of conflict. The administrator would benefit from a reduction of built-up tensions and improved administrative efficiency. The teachers' union representatives would benefit from an improved climate in which collective negotiations could function.

One activity which concerns only the administrator (O_uA) is his orientation to the school board. The teachers' union representatives also engage in activities which concern only themselves; i.e., (O_uTu) activities which concern only the union members. To the


f_A
f_{Tu}
E
f_A
f_{Tu}
f_A
f_A
f_A
O_uA
O_uT_u
f_{Tu}
f_{Tu}
f_{Tu}
f_A
f_{Tu}
C
f_A
f_{Tu}
A
Tu

A: Administrator

Tu: Teachers' union representatives

E: Environment

f_A: Force corresponding to administrators' interest in conflict resolution

f_{Tu}: Force corresponding to teachers' union representatives' interest in conflict resolution

C: Conflict resolution

O_uA: Activities which concern only the administrator

O_uTu: Activities which concern only the teachers' union representatives

Figure 25. Analysis of shared concerns.

degree that these factors exert a dominance over the respective groups, there will be reduced force applied in the shared area. If an administrator is able to successfully differentiate his leader behavior between the school board and the teachers' union representatives and can modify this behavior into acceptable standards, he should be able to achieve conflict resolution. Lewin has suggested that "whether a conflict may be solved, to what degree, and in what way, depends entirely upon the constellation of the particular [situation] and the meaning of conflict for it."[1] He goes on to say that "the frequency and seriousness of conflicts [in an organization] depend mainly on the general atmosphere. For the solution of conflicts, the atmosphere again seems to be the most important factor."[2] If this statement is assumed to be true, then certain responsibilities are automatically placed on the participants in the shared area as depicted in the previous illustration (Figure 24). The administrator must recognize the need and initiate appropriate behavioral modifications. The teachers' union representatives, on the other hand, must make a genuine effort to assist the administrator by being receptive to his positive behavioral changes and by correspondingly making changes in their own behavior. In this way each will reinforce the other's positive behavior and the climate will improve. If the conditions as depicted in Figure 24 are normalized, then the results as illustrated in Figure 26 can be expected.

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[1] Ibid., p. 101.

[2] Ibid.

The school administrator must recognize that, in order to initiate improvements in his interpersonal relations with the teachers' union representatives or, for that matter, with any organized group, he must be the instigator. In this sense he must be willing to relinquish a certain amount of freedom.

Lewin, in discussing the individual in relationship to the group, says:

> Relinquishing of a certain amount of freedom is a condition of membership in any group. It is therefore important for every group to know on what basis the balance between individual and group needs is established. Compliance with the rules of the group may be more or less enforced, or may result from a strong "we-feeling." Experiments show that the latter is much more characteristic of certain democratic atmospheres than of certain autocratic atmospheres. They further show that "we-feeling" makes for less tension and conflict. The readiness to consider the other member's views and goals and to discuss personal problems rationally leads to quicker solution of conflicts.[1]

One remaining problem for administrators concerns the form that resolved conflict will take and in what direction it will travel. It is in this domain that his skill and effectiveness will be crucial.

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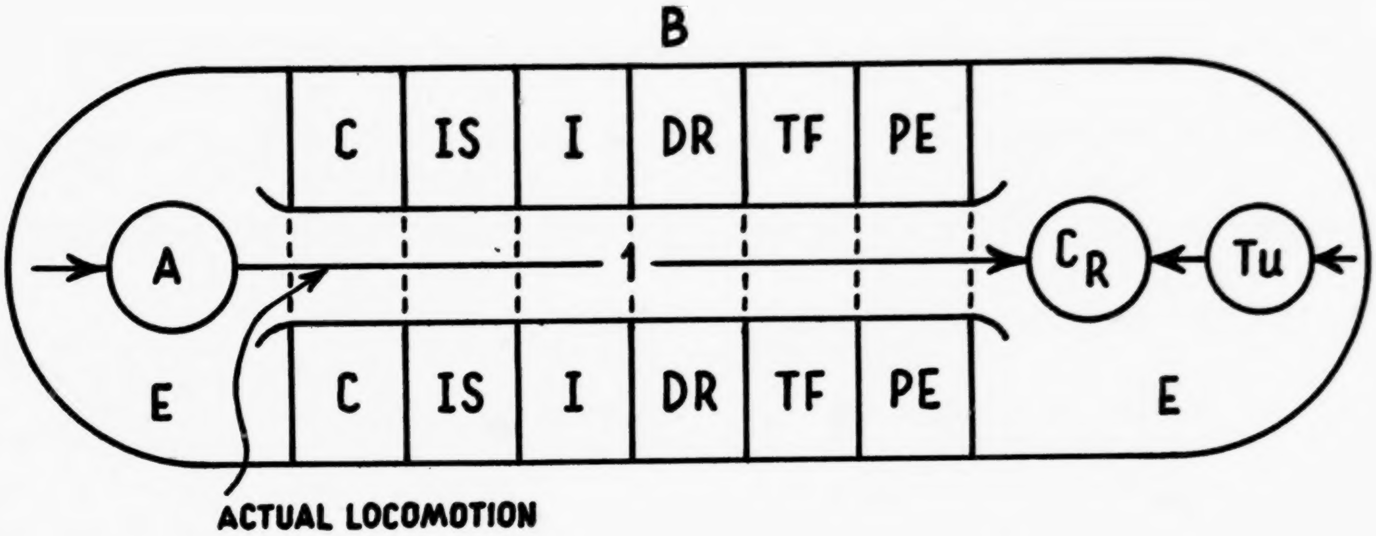
[1] Ibid., p. 102.


B
C
IS
I
DR
TF
PE
A
1
C_R
Tu
E
C
IS
I
DR
TF
PE
E
ACTUAL LOCOMOTION

A:	Administrator
Tu:	Teachers' union representatives
C:	Consideration
IS:	Initiation of structure
I:	Integration
DR:	Demand reconciliation
TF:	Tolerance of freedom
PE:	Production emphasis
B:	Barriers
1:	Sections of barriers passed
C_R:	Conflict resolution
E:	Environment

Figure 26. Conflict resolution.

Summary

At the present time there is little information available concerning the leader behavior of school administrators in regard to their controversy with teachers' unions. The trend has been to quickly gain knowledge of the mechanics of negotiating. The relationship of leader behavior to conflict resolution has been overlooked.

School administrators were found to differentiate in their leader behavior. They behaved one way when dealing with their school boards and another way when dealing with the teachers' unions.

Due to the climate of school administration undergoing change at a rapid pace, attitudes of teachers are also changing. Teachers appear to have lost faith in permitting the administrators to represent them to the school boards and prefer instead to do their own representing.

While no two administrators followed exactly the same pattern of leader behavior, it was determined that in the opinion of the teachers' unions six of the twelve dimensions were more important to them and that administrators were not meeting their leader behavior expectations.

The pattern of collective negotiations to date has placed the school administrator in an adversary role. More study is necessary to try to determine whether this model is the best one to be used in educational administration.

Topological analysis of conflict demonstrated that before an administrator can manage conflict he must overcome barriers which stand in his way. The fact that administrators and teachers' unions do have areas of shared concerns offers an avenue for conflict resolution. The atmosphere surrounding conflict is most important. Effective leader behavior of school administrators can be the moving force in achieving conflict resolution.

CHAPTER VII

ADMINISTRATOR SELECTION

Methods of Selection

One of the crucial tasks facing any school board is the selection of its chief executive officer. The type of administrator chosen determines, to a large extent, the educational and organizational climate which permeates the entire operation. If the administrator is a dynamic individual his administrative techniques will tend to be dynamic. If he is anything less, the administrative pattern will reflect this image. John W. Gardner, secretary of the United States Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, wrote an essay on the subject of leadership. In it he says:

> We are no longer in much danger, in this society, from Men of Destiny. But we are in danger of falling under the leadership of men who lack the confidence to lead. And we are in danger of destroying the effectiveness of those who have a natural gift for leadership.[1]

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[1] John W. Gardner, "Anti-leadership Vaccine," Introduction to Carnegie Annual Report, September 30, 1965.

One of the administrators studied in this research stated that he no longer felt comfortable about "dropping in" to visit a teacher while she was teaching. Another administrator cited the fact that he was reluctant to talk to teachers or ask them to assume any new duties because he did not want to take a chance on having unfair labor practices charged against him. And still another administrator, who formerly socialized with some of his teachers, felt the pressure to withdraw from this activity. "Things are not the same any more," he said. There are, today, three questions being asked by those concerned with this situation: (1) Is the role of administrators being redefined? (2) Have collective negotiations imposed new and more stringent boundaries on administrator leadership? (3) Is the problem, in truth, related to John Gardner's statement that "we are in danger of falling under the leadership of men who lack the confidence to lead"?[1]

The advent of collective negotiation has not imposed a climate which negates the need for effective leadership. In fact, just the opposite is true. The need for leaders with the confidence and ability to lead is more crucial in the field of public school administration than ever before.

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[1] Ibid.

When a vacancy occurs in the office of the chief executive in the typical school system, a search is made by the school board for a new administrator. In the largest school systems the board may employ the services of a professional recruiter to assist in the search for executive talent. In smaller school systems, the school board assumes this duty. The search often starts with visits to college placement offices. Knowledge of interested and qualified prospects might be available from professors of school administration. Word-of-mouth recommendations may sift down to the school board regarding administrators in other systems who may be interested in changing positions. In some cases the replacement may come from within the system itself by upgrading an assistant superintendent or a principal. Applications may be sent to the school board by persons who have heard that a vacancy exists.

A list of candidates is then made from all these possibilities. Each of the prospects is put through an initial screening process. Those remaining are further screened by using a more rigorous criterion. Finally, the prospects are narrowed to those who are asked to appear for interviews. In the initial meeting, general impressions of each of the candidates are noted by individual board members. Although the board members are already familiar with the candidate's background, from the earlier screening, he is usually asked to give it verbally. He may be taken out to dinner, at which time his behavior will be scrutinized and he will be further questioned regarding educational matters, his family life, and other interests. He is, essentially, being "tried on for size."

After the semifinal round of interviews for the serious contenders has been completed, a further interview may be arranged at which time the person who was tentatively selected by the board members will once again be interviewed. The interview will be more casual and designed to determine whether the previous impressions were accurate. The board subsequently decides, and the position is offered to the candidate. If he accepts, the school board announces that the school district has a new chief executive.

While other procedures may be used by school boards to select new administrators, the foregoing description is an approximation of the general pattern exercised. The process sounds rather involved and, on the surface at least, it appears that the school board has been most careful to select "the" man for the job. In all likelihood they have selected a person for their executive officer who has previously administered several school systems, who is middle-aged or older, and who has enjoyed some degree of success in his previous positions. The process seems to have all the elements of a logical, well-defined plan of selection. The board members are proud and impressed with their choice.

The administrator arrives at his office and proceeds to get his "feet on the ground." Usually, during the first months while he is building confidence, an administrator moves cautiously. Later he may begin to make drastic changes and move in a bolder fashion. He starts to exercise the power of his position. This is countered by a resistance on the part of the teachers' union. The administrator may then be threatened with charges of unfair labor practices. As his confidence becomes shaken he seeks to discover what he has done wrong and has trouble finding the answers. He reviews the events leading up to the crisis and consoles himself that the problem is related to increased teacher militancy more than to his own leadership style. Previously he had been a successful administrator. Now his administration is virtually collapsing around him, leaving him bewildered.

The school board members are privately wondering if they had, indeed, made an error in their selection. They do not remember having had this much trouble with previous administrators and wonder what could have gone wrong. T. N. Whitehead, in describing how a leader is selected, said:

> . . . leadership in its simplest form has certain well-marked characteristics whether it be found in industry, among primitive tribes, or in the cities of modern society. In the first place, the leader is selected by the joint inclinations of the candidate himself and of the society or group of which he is a member. Secondly, he is selected for his skill in specific activities. His skill, in a simple community, is usually a manual technical skill. Thirdly, the exercise of the given skill, and the objective promoted, accord with the social sentiments of the group.[1]

Strictly speaking, the typical selection process employed by the school board does not follow the basic principles by which leaders should be selected. Reduced to its simplest form, the typical administrator selection process is: We (the school board) select you (the administrator) to lead them (the teachers).

Prior to organizing for collective negotiations, teachers said very little (at least openly) about the school board's selection of an administrator. The problem now is that teachers are openly rejecting the type of leadership that school boards have provided. In a truly democratic society this event is not totally unexpected. If we return to the point where a vacancy occurred in the office of the chief executive of the school district, perhaps another procedure for selecting an administrator can be explored. The revised procedure would be as follows: The school board requests the teachers' union representatives to select several teachers who would be willing to work with school board members on a selection committee to screen applicants for the administrative position. The board members and the teachers' representatives establish the criteria they will use to screen the candidates. Except for refining the criteria as the screening process narrows the list of candidates, the procedure could continue as before. The final act of the committee would culminate in a recommendation to the school board of the candidate selected as being the best qualified.

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[1] T. N. Whitehead, Leadership in a Free Society (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1936), p. 68.

This method for administrator selection would be a drastic change from the present procedure employed by school boards. The plan, however, does have some merit. The analysis of data established that the descriptions of an ideal administrator given by the teachers' union representatives, school board members, and the administrators themselves were essentially the same; i.e., no significant differences occurred among the three groups. This being true, the criteria for selecting the administrator should be readily resolved.

Inclusion of the teachers on the selection committee should go a long way toward overcoming a serious weakness in the present procedure. The administrator who is selected would know from the start that the teachers had had a voice in his appointment. This fact alone should impress him with the desirability of working closely with the entire organization. Participation by the teachers and school board in the selection of the administrator could be an important step toward conflict resolution.

School boards have traditionally been reluctant to give up duties and responsibilities that have become synonymous with the office. From the moment there were rumblings in the distance regarding collective negotiations, school boards started preparing for organized resistance. Administrators, who also feared the unknown, made similar preparations. In short, they were determined that teachers were not going to be permitted to take over.

The evidence indicates that teachers do not want to take over. Teachers are merely trying to assume their rightful place in the total educational profession. It would also seem reasonable to expect that the new movement will embrace other areas in addition to collective negotiations. The strengthening of the entire teaching profession can only lead to improved education. Improved education is the shared goal of administrators, school boards, and teachers. Leader behavior within these groups can be the moving force. Administrators are in an advantageous position to exert statesmanlike leadership.

Cooperative administrator selection will not be a solution to conflict in itself if other important considerations are not incorporated in the criteria. One factor which has often been overlooked is the matching of the administrator to the organizational climate he is to administer. The most effective administrator may fail if he is faced with an organizational climate which is not ready for his style of leadership. Halpin gives the following example to illustrate this point:

> Suppose that a new principal has been assigned to an elementary school. He is young and intelligent, and he has had good experience and training. He possesses Thrust, and he is highly considerate. He moves into the school with every intention of maintaining an Open Climate such as he had maintained in the school from which he came. But what happens to him if the teachers are not prepared to deal with an Open Climate? Suppose that the teachers in this school have contended for the past ten years with a principal whose behavior typifies that which characterizes a Closed Climate. We must recognize the strong possibility that the very openness of the new principal's behavior presents the teachers with a severe psychological threat. When the members of a group have been deprived of freedom for a long period of time they seldom are quite ready to deal with it, especially if it be made available to them too abruptly.[1]

Organizational Climate

The organizational climate dilemma is somewhat analogous to the long-standing riddle: Which came first, the chicken or the egg?

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[1] Halpin, *op. cit.*, p. 199.

Can an open climate be achieved within an organization before changing the executive leadership? Or, will the change come after the acceptance of an open-climate type of leader? There appears to be no ready answer for this perplexing problem. The solution may lie somewhere between the two extremes. Initially the leadership may have to come from within the organization. In any event, the problem is hinged very delicately and requires diligent attention in order to bring about the desired changes.

Cameron Hawley, former executive turned novelist, describes how it may be necessary to go through several changes of management while an organization is undergoing a transformation:

> . . . a company needs a different management technique during different stages in its development. While it's going through a period of major expansion, breaking into new ground, there's no doubt that it takes a two-fisted dictator with a whip in both hands to make things go. . . . However, when that period is over future success depends upon efficiency of operation and maintenance of position. Then you need a different kind of management.[1]

The selection of an administrator requires that those who are doing the selecting have a factual understanding of the organization. They should also have a clear understanding of the direction in which the organization should be moving and then strive to match the proper administrator to the task to be done.

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[1] Cameron Hawley, Executive Suite (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1952), p. 10.

The selection committee, in addition to having a realistic understanding of its own organizational climate, should also try to evaluate the climate in which the candidate is presently employed. His length of tenure and basic leadership style should also be considered. If the administrator has been in his present position for a period of time--say two or three years--the organizational climate should bear witness to his contribution.

If, for example, the recruiting committee has determined that the school system has an open climate, then any candidate being considered should have a leadership style which would harmonize with an open climate. If the organizational climate is at the other extreme--i.e., a closed climate--and change is desired in the direction of an open climate it might be poor judgment to select an administrator who is essentially an open-climate administrator.

To bring about an orderly and planned change from the closed climate to an open climate, over a period of time, it may be necessary to hire several administrators. Each administrator would have a specific set of tasks to perform to move the system toward the desired climate. Administrator effectiveness is relative to the situation in which it functions. Chris Argyris (quoted also in Halpin, page 205) describes effective leadership as "reality-centered leadership."

> Effective leadership depends upon a multitude of conditions. There is no one predetermined, correct way to behave as a leader. The choice of leadership pattern should be based upon an accurate diagnosis of the reality of the situation in which the leader is imbedded. If one must have a title for effective leadership, it might be called reality-centered leadership. Reality-centered leadership is not a predetermined set of "best ways to influence people." The only predisposition that is prescribed is that the leader ought to first diagnose what is reality and then to use the appropriate leadership pattern. In making his diagnosis, he must keep in mind that all individuals see reality through their own set of colored glasses. The reality he sees may not be the reality seen by others in their own private world. Reality diagnosis, therefore, requires self-awareness and the awareness of others. This leads us back again to the properties of personality. A reality-oriented leader must also keep in mind the worth of the organization.[1]

There are two remaining problems confronting administrators and school boards which will be discussed in the next chapter. The first problem concerns those already in an administrative position who have determined that their leadership style and the organizational climate leave something to be desired. The second problem concerns the school board. They, too, recognize that there is a leadership problem which resolves around their executive officer. They are also aware that the organizational climate is not all that it should be. The next chapter will focus on administrator training and will discuss possible solutions to these problems.

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[1] Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957), p. 207.

Summary

Contrary to the beliefs of many educators, the need for effective administrators has been increased, rather than decreased, as a result of the collective negotiations movement and the accompanying conflict. A typical selection procedure for hiring a school administrator was explained and examples of the problems which can sometimes erupt from following this procedure were given. An alternate procedure for selecting an administrator was suggested whereby representaives from the teaching staff would be given the opportunity to participate as members of an advisory committee.

The organizational climate and the role of the administrator as a change agent in school districts are important to successful conflict management. Problems still confronting school administrators who recognize weaknesses in their leadership style and organizational climate need to be studied. School boards must also be cognizant of problems related to leadership deficiencies and weaknesses in the organizational climate.

CHAPTER VIII

ADMINISTRATOR TRAINING

Problems of Training Leaders

Since collective negotiations have become a fact of life for school administrators, many programs have been hurriedly instituted to educate the school administrator in their subtleties. The State Department of Public Instruction, colleges and universities, administrator associations, research groups, and the Labor Mediation Board have all participated in the dissemination of information on how to negotiate. It is generally agreed that administrators do need additional help. The number of administrators trained or having experience (prior to the adoption of PA 379) in collective negotiations is practically nil. Since the passing of PA 379, most of the experience gained by administrators has been in an atmosphere of "crisis-type" negotiating, with emotions running high. The value of the experiences gained in the process of collective negotiations, to date, appears to be questionable. Lacking a theoretical model from which to operate, the whole issue was thrust upon administrators, school boards, and teachers. While this lack has imposed a serious handicap, the most difficult problems brought to light show glaring inadequacies in the leader behavior of school administrators.

Methods of Training Students

One of the recurring criticisms of the traditional administrator training programs in colleges and universities is that the training is not representative of the experiences encountered by practicing administrators. Administrators have long been critical of the professional preparation they receive. Many courses in educational administration have been derisively called "Mickey Mouse" courses. D. E. Griffiths found, "In a study carried out at a large university, the dean reported that there were ten different departments teaching various varieties of educational administration, and they duplicated each others' offerings to the extent of 90 per cent."[1] While these criticisms have been heard for some time, there has been little of a constructive nature offered to the universities on how to solve the problems. The logical source of positive suggestions for improvement in administrator training programs should come from administrators themselves, yet this has not happened. School administrators who cannot remedy problems confronting them are hardly in a position to offer prescriptions, in the way of positive suggestions, to the universities.

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[1] Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959), p. 72.

If the administrator, while he was still a student, could have taken courses designed to help him get a basic understanding of his own behavioral tendencies and to develop effectiveness in human relations, he would be better equipped to handle the problems confronting him. The results of the LBDQ-Real, dramatically established that as far as the teachers' union representatives are concerned administrators are not meeting the leader behavior expectations held by the teachers.

Kenneth D. Benne offers the following comments on traditional training programs for administrators:

> Traditional methods of administrator training have erred in two principal ways. First, they have understressed the arts of diagnosing action situations in terms of their manageability and changeability. Second, they have tended to separate diagnostic training from prescriptive training on how to act in particular practical situations.[1]

Though students in educational administration have been in contact with many groups throughout their college training, the evidence indicates that when they embark on their professional careers they do not know how to work effectively with people. They do not have a basic understanding of the behavioral sciences or how to apply them. For although college professors do instruct students on the subject of various leadership styles, up to the present time students have found it difficult to correlate the theories to which they have been exposed with their own self-image. For example: How does one diagnose the climate of an organization? What messages can be found in nonverbal communication? What can we learn from the behavior of others?

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[1] Kenneth D. Benne, Case Methods in the Training of Administrators ("Boston University Human Relations Center, Research Papers and Technical Notes," No. 28).

These and other similar questions are of vital importance to the practicing administrator and should be thoroughly treated in the administrative training program. What are the techniques which will bring about changes in an organization? What are the hidden meanings that can be extracted from written messages that are exchanged within an organization? The training program could include experiences designed to give students the opportunity to be critical of administrative situations and processes. Thus, by working effectively with people, students will go through a period of self-discovery and learn to apply acceptable behavioral patterns.

Problems of Practical Application

One technique which has proven beneficial for administrators involved in dealing with grievances of employees is to study typical cases which have been decided by labor mediators. The issue involved is argued from the viewpoint of employees and also that of management. The logic of the two points of view can be examined and a position taken on the facts as they are presented. After the case has been decided, students could then place their evaluation upon it. A critique of the case may establish how the grievance might have been avoided by better administrative techniques.

The LBDQ was concerned with twelve dimensions of leader behavior. Analysis of the data divided the twelve dimensions into two groups. The first group included the dimensions which could be considered as being directed toward the teachers. The second group identified dimensions of leader behavior which were primarily directed toward the school board. This finding emphasizes the duality of behavior required of the administrator. The training program should include, in addition to the theory of each dimension, experience in the application.

Some of the more common techniques developed by small-group researchers include T-group training, simulation, role-playing, group discussion, and problem-solving.

The task of training practicing administrators may use many of the same techniques suggested for training college students who are studying to become school administrators. The training can progress on the assumption that administrators desiring additional training recognize that their leader behavior needs improving. The problem of training practicing administrators has certain complexities which will handicap the training program, but it also has some advantages.

One problem in the training program is that administrators have had a longer period of time to develop an ineffectual leadership style. Administrators, until the passage of PA 379, were able to administer the schools for the most part without fear of having their leadership style challenged or even openly criticized. An autocratic school administrator easily developed in this atmosphere. Expediency in administrative processes often resorted to by the new administrator became a way of life for them. The seeming indifference on the part of teachers only served to reinforce adoption of the technique. Many administrators who have followed an autocratic leadership style will find it difficult to break the habit. The ability to adapt to the changing climate of school administration will be crucial if an administrator is to survive. In a short time, the autocratic administrator will be a thing of the past.

Each administrative style will need to be diagnosed in order to help effect the desired change. Halpin gives a warning which may be well heeded in the training of practicing administrators:

> Having diagnosed the superintendent's leadership skills, what can we do to help him improve these skills? It is regrettable that there is no pat answer; we must read the notes as well as we can and let our own psychological insights suggest the tune. Role-playing can help, and professional counseling can accomplish a great deal. Practice in situational analysis and case-study methods are often useful. But the training task is formidable; nor are we always sure that the training methods achieve what was intended in the first place.[1]

Halpin[2] also warns against accepting what the administrator says about himself concerning the changes he thinks have taken place as a result of training. Research findings from an Air Force study and also a study on educational administrators verified that an administrator's impression of his own behavioral changes did not necessarily agree with descriptions of his behavior given by others. Halpin suggested that direct associates' perceived descriptions were an acceptable measure of an administrator's leader behavior changes.

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[1] Halpin, op. cit., p. 124.

[2] Ibid.

The acknowledgment of this premise could be useful in training programs.

A fact which became apparent when the data of the present research were being analyzed was how various administrators were stronger in some dimensions than they were in others. Because of this fact, it would be necessary to adjust the training program to the individual administrators.

If, for example, an administrator's leader behavior on the dimension initiation of structure was described as being satisfactory (above the mean) it would not be necessary to dwell very long on this dimension in his training program. Conversely, if the administrator's leader behavior on the dimension consideration received a low score (below the mean) greater emphasis should be placed here.

A valuable technique which can be used to help administrators gain an awareness of themselves is known as sensitivity training. Several procedures are used, but the major one is called the T-group, with T standing for training. The typical setting can be illustrated by the diagram in Figure 27.

The number of administrators studied in the present research happened to coincide with the recommended number which makes up a T-group. The letters assigned to the diagram could be considered

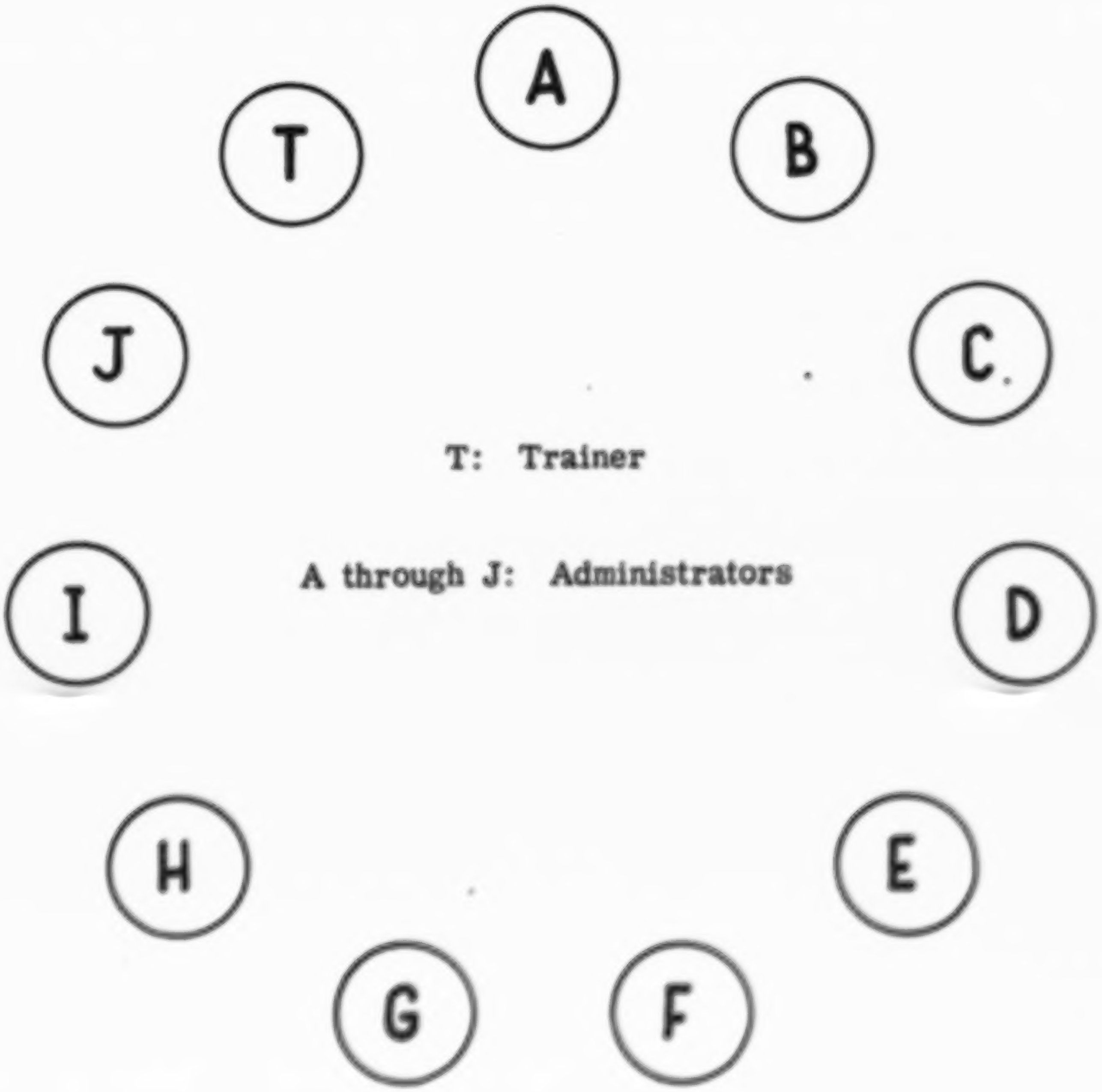
A
T
B
J
C
T: Trainer
A through J: Administrators
I
D
H
E
G
F

Figure 27. T-group.

as the T-group structure if the administrators who participated in the research were also participating in T-group training. The administrators would be brought together in a situation structured similarly to the diagram; i.e., face to face. From that point on, as far as the participants are concerned, there appears to be a complete lack of structure. The trainer does not offer suggestions on what should be taking place. Instead, he acts the part of a casual bystander. He makes absolutely no effort to lead or control the group in any way. After a few moments the participants begin to act uneasy and look for a cue as to what is going on. Some members grow impatient, others become bored, while still others may experience psychological anxiety. This lack of an authority figure creates a power vacuum. In a short time some of the members begin to communicate with others who are in close proximity. For example, A will start to talk with B, C with D, and so on. The conversation, after an initial exchange, may then be directed toward the whole group. One of the members might ask, "What are we supposed to be doing?" When no answer is given, someone else may make a move to initiate "something" or to assume control of the group. At this point the trainer will suggest that the group discuss the reasons and motives of the one who has sought to lead the group. The members are asked to express exactly how they feel about the behavior of the aggressor. Those who criticize are, in turn, criticized. After a period of time has elapsed, during which the members express themselves, the trainer can step in to establish control of the group and explain what has taken place. "The keynote of the T-Group," as explained by H. A. Shepard, "is interpersonal uncertainty, and training is learning to reduce uncertainty by consensual validation of experience."[1] The value of sensitivity training is that it provides individuals with a greater awareness of others' behavior and also their own. An understanding of group processes is gained through direct experience. The role of authority and its relation to group cohesion takes on meaning. In other words, the members are involved in a practical demonstration of group dynamics.

Another technique that has proven valuable, and is an outgrowth of behavioral research, is role-playing. If, for example, the task is teaching leadership styles, then trainers who are experts in portraying the different styles are put into structured situations. The "actors" proceed to demonstrate to administrators how it would be practiced by the autocrat or democrat or a combination of other leadership styles. After the demonstration a critique is conducted to point out the delicate distinctions in what the trainees have observed.

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[1] Herbert A. Shepard, The T-Group as Training in Observant Participation ("Theory of Training" Series, Massachusetts Institute of Technology).

Simulation is another technique which has been used to expose students to conditions which are designed to duplicate, as nearly as possible, actual situations. One of the more common techniques used in simulation training is the "in-basket" method. By this method various problems are presented to the student. He analyzes the problems and makes decisions as to how he thinks the problems should be solved. As in other training methods, a critique at the end of the session is used to point out the strengths and weaknesses of the student's decision-making process. Alternate solutions are discussed and weighed against the decisions reached by the student.

One of the most serious deficiencies in administrators is that they are not effective agents of change. Vance Packard says:

> Our times call for . . . leaders who can be effective agents of change. Such a leader must understand the social and political environment in which he operates and the motivations of the people upon whom he depends for success. As a minimum target, he must prevent an alienation of his institution from society. As an optimum goal he can help lead his institution and society in a direction that best serves the long-range interest of everyone.[1]

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[1] Packard, op. cit., p. 288.

At this point one may only speculate what the status of conflict would be in collective negotiations, had administrators acted as effective agents of change. If this had been their role, it is unlikely that widespread conflict could have reached such serious proportions. The problem of preparing administrators to accept such changes has not been generally incorporated into professional training programs. The greatest handicaps to be overcome by administrators are lack of understanding and tolerance. Halpin says:

> . . . the most immediate step which a person can take toward understanding his own behavior and that of others is to balance the applied, technical, and professional courses which he takes with a rich liberal arts program.[1]

He further states:

> Perhaps I should add in passing that those of us who have been responsible for training executives, whether in industry, government, or education, are appalled by one glaring flaw in most of the candidates: they are culturally illiterate.[2]

In most colleges and universities the liberal arts are generally introduced early in a student's program. After two years there is a sharp drop in liberal arts courses. By the time a student reaches graduate school, liberal arts training is almost nonexistent. After he completes his formal training and accepts his first job his interests become narrower. Whatever reading he does is generally limited to professional journals, newspapers, or popular "escape" literature. This is not the type of exploratory experiences which could possibly enable an administrator to become an effective change agent.

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[1] Halpin, op. cit., p. 275.

[2] Ibid., p. 274.

Assuming that administrator training is modified to provide administrators with the qualities just outlined, the problem of how to plan for effective changes in a social setting still remains. Dr. Lewis Ward (quoted in an interview with Vance Packard) stated that "one of the functions of the executive of any organization is to lead his organization in the changes that are occurring. . . ."[1] Administrators have not been leading in the changes taking place regarding collective action by teachers. There is a saying that appears on the walls and desks of many administrators which facetiously asks the question: "Do you understand the problem or are you part of it?" Many administrators who get a chuckle out of this saying are the very ones who should take it seriously. Before any change can take place, recognition of the problem is necessary. After the problem has been defined it is essential to evaluate the forces that are the components of the problem, weighing each one carefully. In order to effect change it is necessary to make modifications in the forces and countervailing forces interacting on each other. David Jenkins suggests three ways in which forces can be changed. "The component forces can be modified in the following way: (1) reducing or removing forces; (2) strengthening or adding forces; (3) changing the direction of the forces."[1]

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[1] Packard, loc. cit.

The importance of theory was very aptly stated by T. C. Allbutt:

> The man of affairs without science is like the physician who has fallen out of the anatomy and physiology he may have known; within limits he may be a shrewder and abler practitioner than an academic professor; but this he will be at the cost of being stationary. . . . To principles, sooner or later, the subtlest craftsman has to bow his head; for, even while his hand is on his tools, by theory contingencies and complications are being detected and eliminated, and processes shortened and economized.[2]

At the present time, in the field of education, there is no satisfactory administrative model for collective negotiations. In its absence the model developed for industrial relations has been more or less adopted. The results to date have been anything but satisfactory. Change, in the form of collective action by teachers, has been thrust upon educational administrations. And the time has now come to develop principles, both in theory and practice. If administrators are, in fact, going to be leaders of educational organizations it is imperative that they should be intellectually prepared and professionally equipped to determine in which direction they should lead.

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[1] David H. Jenkins, "Social Engineering in Educational Change: An Outline of Method," Progressive Education, XXVI, No. 7 (May, 1949), 196.

[2] T. C. Allbutt, On Professional Education (London, 1906).

Summary

Since collective negotiations with teachers' unions have become a fact of life for school administrators, there have been many so-called crash programs designed to quickly improve the administrator's effectiveness. While these programs were admittedly important in helping the administrator with his immediate problems related to the negotiating process, there has been an almost complete lack of adequate programs for training administrators to be effective change agents, to have an understanding of organizational climates, and, most important, to understand the relationship of his leader behavior to the presence of conflict.

The evidence indicates that many present-day administrators do not function effectively in face-to-face relationships. College administrator training programs need to place a greater emphasis on the behavioral sciences.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of studying the leader behavior of school administrators who were undergoing conflict with teachers' unions was to try to identify styles or forms of leader behavior which were contributing to the presence of conflict. Of the twelve leader behavior dimensions identified by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, six dimensions were found to be of greater importance to the teachers' union than were the other six. These leader behavior dimensions were consideration, initiation of structure, integration, demand reconciliation, tolerance of freedom, and production emphasis. This finding would indicate that school administrators undergoing conflict with teachers' unions might well question themselves on their leader behavior on these dimensions. If realistically answered, it is likely that the administrator will find that his behavior leaves something to be desired in several of the leader behavior dimensions.

One of the problems which became evident as the research developed was related to inadequacies in the professional training of the administrators. Not one of the administrators who participated in the study had formal training in collective negotiations or bargaining. None appeared to be familiar with the techniques for analyzing and resolving social conflicts. Most of the administrators failed to recognize the importance of their leader behavior to the presence of conflict. No planned courses of action for conflict resolution could be discerned. Most administrators viewed the presence of conflict as just a sign of the times and voiced no responsibility for the situation. The paradox of the situation is that all administrators appeared to be genuinely interested in establishing a relationship that everyone concerned could live with.

Reactions by the administrators to PA 379 ranged from "a terrible law" to "we can learn to live with it." Neither position will establish the type of administrative relationship with teachers which will improve education or the professionalism of the educators. If the law is not in the best interest of education and the educators who must live within its terms, then the law should be modified in the same way in which it was adopted. While the law appears to have certain inherent weaknesses, it is not the law which has been at the source of the trouble. Examination of the cases which have come before the Labor Mediation Board reveals that many of the cases involve charges directly related to behavioral deficiencies on the part of administrators. The law was designed to work both ways; i.e., administrators and school boards to have the same protection granted to the teachers. To date there are few cases in which action has been instituted against the behavior of the leadership of the teachers' organizations. This, however, was not the point of this research. Administrators are the chief executive officers of their school boards and as such are responsible for the entire operation of the schools. Under the present organizational structure this includes maintaining a harmonious organizational climate. The events over the past several years indicate that, in district after district in the state of Michigan, crisis administration has become a way of life. The Governor was so concerned about the crises that he called all sides in the various disputes to come to his office in an effort to assure the opening of the public schools in the fall of 1966. One prominent writer has suggested that we have institutionalized conflict by adopting the type of legislation we have in Michigan. Conflict as such cannot be institutionalized unless conditions prevail which allow it to erupt.

While the issues facing administrators as a result of collective negotiations are complex, they are not insurmountable. Obviously, adequate professional training is necessary. A greater awareness of self on the part of administrators, which has been missing to date, is necessary. The role an administrator must play in effecting planned change instead of forced change cannot be too strongly emphasized. Greater understanding of the behavioral sciences appears to be a crucial requirement.

The mechanics of effective collective negotiations, while important, do not appear on the basis of this research to be the most important factor in changing dysfunctional conflict into constructive conflict. That change can only come from the effective leader behavior of administrators and teachers' union representatives alike. It would also appear that the initial move must come from the administrators. The observation that "salary usually triggered the conflict but there was usually more to it" was found to be true in every case studied.

One can only conclude after studying the leader behavior of practicing school administrators that changes in the professional preparation of future administrators must undergo extensive revision. This will be necessary in order to adequately prepare administrators to become effective in a rapidly expanding and complex administrative climate.

Unexpected Findings

One of the most unexpected findings concerned the leader behavior dimension representation. It was expected, prior to analyzing the data, that this dimension would have been of great interest to the teachers' union representatives. The data, however, did not support this thought. The dimension initiation of structure was not described by the three groups in the same way on the LBDQ-Ideal scale. This finding was not expected and would indicate an area of potential conflict due to the disagreement over what the ideal leader behavior should be. This is a dimension which would need to be clarified before conflict resolution could be effected. The only other dimension upon which the three groups disagreed on the LBDQ-Ideal concerned role assumption. This dimension would also require clarification before agreement on descriptions of a leader's LBDQ-Real score would be possible.

The last unexpected finding relates to the researcher. He was a practicing administrator for eight years prior to undertaking this study and was conditioned to a management point of view regarding employee relations. Because of this experience he was aware of certain biases and guarded very carefully to keep the research as objective as it was humanly possible to do. The inescapable feeling was, however, that the researcher would encounter an element of radicalism and irresponsibility when confronting teachers' union members. This expectation never materialized. The researcher found instead that without exception union representatives were intensely interested in improving education and the professional status of educators and were searching for ways to improve the dialogue with school administrators.

If there were a criticism to be made, it would have to be levied against administrators and teachers' union representatives alike. The researcher found a serious weakness in communication between the two groups, for which responsibility seemed to be shared.

Recommendations

Colleges and universities responsible for the professional training of school administrators need to take a critical look at the present curriculum in light of the dynamic changes taking place in the field of public school administration. The evidence indicates that there are serious weaknesses in the professional preparation of most practicing school administrators. There are voids in their training in the practical aspects of conducting effective collective negotiations. Even if, through the natural evolution of collective negotiations, the administrator's role is modified so that he is not the representative of the board who actually conducts the negotiations proceedings, he still must be technically prepared to be able to make recommendations in light of the total conditions which prevail.

The research established that there were definite shortcomings in the leader behavior of the school administrators who were studied. In light of these findings it would seem necessary to broaden the experiences of future administrators in the behavioral sciences in order to insure greater understanding.

There was also a lack of understanding of conflict theory and techniques for effective conflict resolution. More training is needed in both the theory and practical application of conflict resolution. The present dysfunctional effects of conflict need to be remedied by training future administrators on how to resolve conflict through constructive methods. There is also a need to train administrators to become effective change agents. This aspect of training has been totally neglected. The understanding of organizational structures and the climates found therein need greater emphasis in the training period.

One administrator who was relatively new to school administration could only be described as naive to the intricacies of organizational understanding. It does not make sense to subject someone who is seemingly administrator material to responsibilities for which he is totally unprepared. There would seem to be no surer way of guaranteeing administrator failure. One way in which this problem could be attacked would be to make it mandatory for potential administrators to serve an intern period. During this time appropriate course work along the lines previously mentioned should supplement the internship experiences. Efforts should be made to provide for special certification of administrators. The complexities of modern school administration demand that the requirements be upgraded.

For practicing school administrators the training program would be slightly different. The training would consist, in addition to the practical aspects of conducting effective collective negotiations, course work designed to broaden the administrator's understanding of the behavioral sciences, organizational climate, and the role of the administrator as a change agent.

Suggestions for Further Research

Earlier in the text of the research there was a quotation which in effect said, "The results tell us as much about the describing groups as they do about the behavior of the superintendents in question." Assuming this statement to be true, it indicates that research is warranted on the describing groups patterned after the research design used to study the administrator.

During the course of the present research the author noted a newspaper report of a school board which had hired a professional person whose only responsibility was to effect planned change. Research into how school administrators can become effective change agents would seem to be a valuable contribution.

Further research concerning conflict between administrators and other teachers' organizations would enable comparisons to be made. A comparison of this kind may further define the leader behavior dimensions explored in the present research. The author was impressed with the research cited earlier called "The Robbers' Cave Experiment." The possibility of conducting research involving conflict in the administrator-staff relationships to study conflict and conflict resolution should prove to be fruitful for adding to administrative theory.

The present research was concerned only with school administrators in conflict with teachers' unions. It would be extremely valuable to compare school administrators who have been able to establish harmonious relationships with the teachers' union or with other teachers' groups and then make comparisons of the contrasting leader behavior styles.

The findings of the present research established that some of the leader behavior dimensions appeared to be directed toward teachers, while others were inclined to be directed toward the school board. Assuming this finding to be true, research concerning role differentiation of school administrators on the dimension of leader behavior identified by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire would enable those dimensions to be definitively identified.

Although this researcher found it to be very difficult to secure an adequate number of administrators willing to participate in such a controversial subject, additional research with a larger sample would undoubtedly shed more light.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LETTERS AND PROSPECTUS

(Letter to administrators)

12293 Margaret Drive
Fenton, Michigan
Date

Dear Sir:

Your school system is one in which there has been reported a degree of activity by the American Federation of Teachers. I am presently engaged in a study at Michigan State University on the behavior of leaders. As a part of this study I am seeking the cooperation of school administrators in the completion of a questionnaire. The questionnaire has been developed and used in research at Ohio State University under the auspices of the Personnel Research Board.

Enclosed is a description of the project with a statement of what is required of those who participate in it. A summary of the findings is scheduled to be ready in the Spring of 1967.

It is my sincere hope that after studying the prospectus you will want to participate along with other interested school administrators. Please return the enclosed form at your earliest convenience.

Sincerely yours,

David R. Cave

Your name: ____________________
School District: ________________
City: __________________________
Date: __________________________

Interview Appointment Form

It is planned to complete the administration of the field work (administration of the questionnaires) during the period between September and October. Will you please indicate three choices of dates that would be convenient for you to have me visit your school?

Date ________________________ Time ____________________ (1st choice)

Date ________________________ Time ____________________ (2nd choice)

Date ________________________ Time ____________________ (3rd choice)

As soon as this inquiry form is returned a time and date will immediately be set for the visit to administer the LBDQ. Please return this form in the attached self-addressed envelope.

Sincerely yours,

David R. Cave.

(Letter from National School Boards Association)

COPY

National School Boards Asso.
1233 Central Street
Evanston, Illinois

Mr. David R. Cave
12293 Margaret Drive
Fenton, Michigan

Dear Mr. Cave:

I have been delayed in replying to your recent letter as I tried to catch up on my work following our Annual Convention.

I would certainly agree with you that the subject of how superintendents can establish working relations between teachers, superintendents and their boards of education is an important one to which greater attention needs to be given in the preparation programs of future school administrators.

If you are successful in getting approval for your study I should like very much to hear of your program and know of your plans inasmuch as this is a subject in which I am very much interested.

Sincerely,

Harold V. Webb
Executive Director

HVW:as

cc: Dr. Julius Barbour

COPY

(Letter from American Federation of Teachers)

COPY

American Federation of Teachers
716 N. Rush Street
Chicago, Illinois
April 20, 1965

Mr. David R. Cave
12293 Margaret Drive
Fenton, Michigan

Dear Mr. Cave:

I was pleased to learn of the project that you are undertaking for a doctoral thesis at Michigan State University.

In the light of the battles that are being fought between school administrators and teacher unions, and even more particularly in the light of the unfought battles that need to be undertaken because of repressive school management and that are suppressed by those administrators, I believe that your proposed study of the conflict between school administrators and teacher unions is most timely and would fill a much needed gap in our information.

I certainly would appreciate seeing a copy of your thesis when it is completed.

With best wishes,

Sincerely yours,

CHARLES COGEN
President
AMERICAN FEDERATION OF TEACHERS

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COPY

MERA

Metropolitan Educational Research Association

Erickson Hall (517) 355-8617
Michigan State University
East Lansing 48823

(Letter requesting cooperation)

The purposes of the Metropolitan Educational Research Association include establishing and conducting cooperative educational studies, demonstrations and research of particular value to metropolitan districts. One of the first activities of the Association has been to develop a one-day conference on professional negotiations for school administrators. This conference will focus on the sophistication needed by school administrators in professional negotiations. The conference is scheduled to be held May 20, 1966.

Through the development of this program we have become aware of a study in the area of professional negotiations being conducted by a graduate student at Michigan State University. Mr. David Cave's study is related to leader behavior in school districts currently engaged in the development of professional negotiation units.

It would be helpful if your district would participate in this timely study. Please be assured that the identity of all participating individuals and school districts will be handled in a confidential manner.

Mr. Cave will be contacting you in a short time requesting your participation. Your cooperation will be appreciated.

Sincerely,

Kenneth H. Summerer
Assistant Executive Secretary
MERA

(Letter requesting cooperation)

I hope very much that you can take part in the study proposed in the enclosed letter. This is a highly important new arena in which school administrators must develop competence and security.

We all need to learn as much as possible from one another. Mr. Cave's study will protect absolutely the identity of all individuals and school systems involved. But if it is to have the value we foresee for those administrators in the state and nation who have not yet had to face this problem, we need the widest possible base.

Walter Scott has nearly completed his study which is basically aimed to suggest better university preparation programs for superintendents. The Cave study does not duplicate Scott's work, but is designed to be of more immediate help when completed.

Your participation will help us all find ways to face these new pressures with more confidence.

Sincerely yours,

Archibald Shaw, Chairman
Department of Administration and
Higher Education
College of Education
Michigan State University

A PROSPECTUS OF THE STUDY OF THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

In recent years there has been a dynamic change taking place in the personnel relations aspect of many school systems. Teachers, as a group, have been pursuing new avenues in their quest for a greater voice in such recognition. This situation has caused re-evaluation and modification of long standing administration-teaching staff relations. The administrator is confronted by a dual leadership responsibility. He is hired by and responsible to his board of education. He must also be responsive to the members of his own professional staff. Research has shown that leaders faced with similar dual responsibilities are often in a position of potential role conflict.

In order to improve in-service training programs for administrators and to develop more effective techniques for selecting and training future administrators, it would be highly desirable to obtain dependable knowledge about the leadership behavior of school administrators involved in the current conflict with teachers' unions. This study is concerned specifically with the following five questions:

1. Do the members of the board and the representatives of the teachers' union agree in their descriptions of the administrator's leader behavior?

2. Do they agree on how they expect an educational administrator to behave as a leader?

3. In what way do their descriptions of how the administrator does behave differ from the ideology of how they believe he should behave?

4. What is the administrator's perception of his leadership behavior? How does he believe that he should behave?

5. In what ways do the administrators' perceptions and expectations differ from those of the board members? From those of the representatives of the teachers' union?

The technique of analyzing possible differences between board members' and staff members' descriptions of the leader's behavior and of comparing these descriptions with parallel expectations of how the leader should behave, has proven fruitful in industrial and military investigations conducted as part of the Ohio State Leadership Studies and has provided important and practical cues for improving leadership skills. Andrew Halpin undertook, as an extension of the Ohio State Leadership series, a study of the Leader Behavior of School Administrators. As an integral part of his study the LBDQ (Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire) was developed. It is a refinement of this instrument that is being used in this study.

In broad terms, then, the purposes of the present study are as follows:

1. To increase basic knowledge about the leadership behavior of educational administrators in order that in-service training programs may be improved and to develop better methods of selecting and training future administrators.

2. To enable administrators to see leader behavior as the board of education and representatives of the teachers' union see it and to allow for comparison of these perceptions with how they expect the administrator to behave as a leader. This information will suggest to administrators ways to improve their leadership skills.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire developed by the Personnel Research Board, Ohio State University, will be the instrument used to gather data. The questionnaire is in multiple-choice format and contains items which describe leader behavior. The following are illustrative:

1. He is easy to understand.

2. He tries to increase the interest of staff members in staff problems.

3. He maintains definite standards of performance.

Plan of the Study

School systems in which there has been an element of conflict between administrators and the teachers' union (A.F.T.) will comprise the sample. Two forms of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) will be used. This will include:

A description by members of the board of education of:
1. How the administrator should behave (LBDQ-Ideal).
2. How the administrator behaves (LBDQ-Real).

A description by the administrator of:
1. How he believes he should behave (LBDQ-Ideal).
2. How he believes he behaves (LBDQ-Real).

A description by the representatives of the teachers' union of:
1. How the administrator should behave (LBDQ-Ideal).
2. How the administrator behaves as a leader (LBDQ-Real).

Procedure

Both forms of the questionnaire can be completed in from 30 to 40 minutes. The researcher will visit the participating school districts to administer the questionnaires.

The school administrator is at the focus of this study. It concerns his behavior and the expectations others have of him. It is, therefore, imperative that the findings be handled in the strictest professional confidence. How is this to be accomplished?

1. The questionnaires will be collected by the researcher as soon as they are completed.

2. No one will see any completed questionnaires other than those he fills out himself.

3. The data will be processed at Michigan State University. Immediately upon receipt of the completed questionnaires a code letter will be assigned designating the administrator being studied. Thereafter, the data will be analyzed entirely in terms of these code letters, with absolutely no references to the names of the individual respondents or the participating school districts.

4. The results will be reported only in terms of intergroup trends and relationships.

When the study has been completed and the data have been analyzed, a report on the findings will be available. The report will describe the dimensions of leadership behavior upon which this research has been focused. Reference will be made to related industrial, military, and educational studies based upon this same approach and, insofar as the data permit, implications for the improvement of leadership skills will be indicated.

APPENDIX B

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

(Cover sheet for Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire)

(LBDQ-Ideal)

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the leader behavior of your superintendent. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your superintendent.

Note: The term "group," as employed in the following items refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members" refers to all the people in the unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

Instructions

This form (LBDQ-Ideal) is identical with the first form as far as the questions you will be answering. However, there is one important difference. As you respond to the individual items you are to answer them to indicate how you believe your administrator should behave in his position as an educational leader.

(Cover sheet for Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire)

(LBDQ-Real)

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the leader behavior of your superintendent. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the leader behavior of your superintendent.

Note: The term "group," as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members" refers to all the people in the unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

COPY

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE--Form XII

Originated by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies
and revised by the
Bureau of Business Research

Published by

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College of Commerce and Administration
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

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DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.
b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
c. DECIDE whether he (A) always, (B) often, (C) occasionally, (D) seldom, or (E) never acts as described by the item.
d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

e. MARK your answers as shown in the examples below.

Example: He often acts as described A B C D E
Example: He never acts as described A B C D E
Example: He occasionally acts as described A B C D E

---

1. He acts as the spokesman of the group. A B C D E
2. He waits patiently for the results of a decision. A B C D E
3. He makes pep talks to stimulate the group. A B C D E
4. He lets group members know what is expected of them. A B C D E
5. He allows the members complete freedom in their work. A B C D E
6. He is hesitant about taking initiative in the group. A B C D E
7. He is friendly and approachable. A B C D E
8. He encourages overtime work. A B C D E
9. He makes accurate decisions. A B C D E
10. He gets along well with the people above him. A B C D E
11. He publicizes the activities of the group. A B C D E
12. He becomes anxious when he cannot find out what is coming next. A B C D E
13. His arguments are convincing. A B C D E
14. He encourages the use of uniform procedures. A B C D E
15. He permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems. A B C D E
16. He fails to take necessary action. A B C D E

17. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. A B C D E
18. He stresses being ahead of competing groups. A B C D E
19. He keeps the group working together as a team. A B C D E
20. He keeps the group in good standing with higher authority. A B C D E
21. He speaks as the representative of the group. A B C D E
22. He accepts defeat in stride. A B C D E
23. He argues persuasively for his point of view. A B C D E
24. He tries out his ideas in the group. A B C D E
25. He encourages initiative in the group members. A B C D E
26. He lets other persons take away his leadership in the group. A B C D E
27. He puts suggestions made by the group into operation. A B C D E
28. He needles members for greater effort. A B C D E
29. He seems able to predict what is coming next. A B C D E
30. He is working hard for a promotion. A B C D E
31. He speaks for the group when visitors are present. A B C D E
32. He accepts delays without becoming upset. A B C D E
33. He is a very persuasive talker. A B C D E
34. He makes his attitudes clear to the group. A B C D E
35. He lets the members do their work the way they think best. A B C D E
36. He lets some members take advantage of him. A B C D E
37. He treats all group members as his equals. A B C D E
38. He keeps the work moving at a rapid pace. A B C D E
39. He settles conflicts when they occur in the group. A B C D E
40. His superiors act favorably on most of his suggestions. A B C D E
41. He represents the group at outside meetings. A B C D E
42. He becomes anxious when waiting for new developments. A B C D E
43. He is very skillful in an argument. A B C D E
44. He decides what shall be done and how it shall be done. A B C D E
45. He assigns a task, then lets the members handle it. A B C D E
46. He is the leader of the group in name only. A B C D E
47. He gives advance notice of changes. A B C D E
48. He pushes for increased production. A B C D E

49. Things usually turn out as he predicts. A B C D E
50. He enjoys the privileges of his position. A B C D E
51. He handles complex problems efficiently. A B C D E
52. He is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty. A B C D E
53. He is not a very convincing talker. A B C D E
54. He assigns group members to particular tasks. A B C D E
55. He turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to it. A B C D E
56. He backs down when he ought to stand firm. A B C D E
57. He keeps to himself. A B C D E
58. He asks the members to work harder. A B C D E
59. He is accurate in predicting the trend of events. A B C D E
60. He gets his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members. A B C D E
61. He gets swamped by details. A B C D E
62. He can wait just so long, then blows up. A B C D E
63. He speaks from a strong inner conviction. A B C D E
64. He makes sure that his part in the group is understood by the group members. A B C D E
65. He is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action. A B C D E
66. He lets some members have authority that he should keep. A B C D E
67. He looks out for the personal welfare of group members. A B C D E
68. He permits the members to take it easy in their work. A B C D E
69. He sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated. A B C D E
70. His word carries weight with his superiors. A B C D E
71. He gets things all tangled up. A B C D E
72. He remains calm when uncertain about coming events. A B C D E
73. He is an inspiring talker. A B C D E
74. He schedules the work to be done. A B C D E
75. He allows the group a high degree of initiative. A B C D E
76. He takes full charge when emergencies arise. A B C D E
77. He is willing to make changes. A B C D E
78. He drives hard when there is a job to be done. A B C D E

79. He helps group members settle their differences. A B C D E
80. He gets what he asks for from his superiors. A B C D E
81. He can reduce a madhouse to system and order. A B C D E
82. He is able to delay action until the proper time occurs. A B C D E
83. He persuades others that his ideas are to their advantage. A B C D E
84. He maintains definite standards of performance. A B C D E
85. He trusts the members to exercise good judgment. A B C D E
86. He overcomes attempts made to challenge his leadership. A B C D E
87. He refuses to explain his actions. A B C D E
88. He urges the group to beat its previous record. A B C D E
89. He anticipates problems and plans for them. A B C D E
90. He is working his way to the top. A B C D E
91. He gets confused when too many demands are made of him. A B C D E
92. He worries about the outcome of any new procedure. A B C D E
93. He can inspire enthusiasm for a project. A B C D E
94. He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations. A B C D E
95. He permits the group to set its own pace. A B C D E
96. He is easily recognized as the leader of the group. A B C D E
97. He acts without consulting the group. A B C D E
98. He keeps the group working up to capacity. A B C D E
99. He maintains a closely knit group. A B C D E
100. He maintains cordial relations with superiors. A B C D E

APPENDIX C

STATISTICAL TABLES AND CHARTS

Table 4. Scores on leader behavior dimension scales.

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
SCORES ON CONSIDERATION SCALE					
Ideal					
A	45.00	44.67	44.00	44.56	0.4157
B	48.00	45.67	42.00	45.22	2.4696
C	50.00	38.33	40.33	42.89	5.0942
D	43.00	39.00	44.67	42.22	2.3779
E	43.00	45.00	43.00	43.67	0.9428
F	44.00	43.00	42.00	43.00	0.8165
G	45.00	45.00	45.67	45.22	0.3143
H	47.00	44.67	43.67	45.11	1.3966
I	38.00	43.67	42.00	41.22	2.3779
J	44.00	45.67	43.00	44.22	1.0999
Avg.	44.70	43.47	43.03	43.73	
S.D.	3.1000	2.5263	1.4640		2.5581
Real					
A	42.00	41.00	21.00	34.67	9.6724
B	35.00	45.33	24.67	35.00	8.4371
C	39.00	30.33	16.33	28.56	9.3386
D	41.00	32.67	23.67	32.44	7.0780
E	38.00	40.00	32.33	36.78	3.2470
F	41.00	40.00	32.67	37.89	3.7152
G	44.00	41.33	28.33	37.89	6.8439
H	44.00	43.00	24.00	37.00	9.2014
I	38.00	41.33	21.33	33.56	8.7489
J	44.00	45.00	32.33	40.44	5.7499
Avg.	40.60	40.00	25.67	35.42	
S.D.	2.9052	4.6284	5.2957		8.1822

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
Difference					
A	3.00	3.67	23.00	9.89	9.2749
B	13.00	0.33	17.33	10.22	7.2128
C	11.00	8.00	24.00	14.33	6.9442
D	2.00	6.33	21.00	9.78	8.1301
E	5.00	5.00	10.67	6.89	2.6713
F	3.00	3.00	9.33	5.11	2.9856
G	1.00	3.67	17.33	7.33	7.1544
H	3.00	1.67	19.67	8.11	8.1891
I	0.00	2.33	20.67	7.67	9.2416
J	0.00	0.67	10.67	3.78	4.8788
Avg.	4.10	3.47	17.37	8.31	
S.D.	4.2297	2.3152	5.0935		7.5806
SCORES ON INITIATION OF STRUCTURE SCALE					
Ideal					
A	47.00	41.00	39.33	42.44	3.2923
B	42.00	46.67	38.33	42.33	3.4102
C	47.00	42.33	42.33	43.89	2.1999
D	45.00	43.67	39.67	42.78	2.2662
E	41.00	44.67	38.67	41.44	2.4696
F	41.00	44.67	39.67	41.78	2.1140
G	48.00	45.33	43.33	45.56	1.9116
H	41.00	44.00	42.33	42.44	1.2273
I	46.00	44.33	41.67	44.00	1.7847
J	43.00	44.67	44.00	43.89	0.6849
Avg.	44.10	44.13	40.93	43.06	
S.D.	2.6627	1.4847	1.9310		2.5677

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Real		
A	39.00	37.67	31.33	36.00	3.3444
B	36.00	43.00	34.00	37.67	3.8586
C	47.00	37.33	35.00	39.78	5.1950
D	37.00	37.67	24.00	32.89	6.2913
E	40.00	37.67	32.67	36.78	3.0591
F	36.00	41.67	29.67	35.78	4.9015
G	45.00	38.33	31.00	38.11	5.7176
H	41.00	41.00	28.00	36.67	6.1283
I	39.00	41.67	31.67	37.44	4.2281
J	41.00	45.00	31.67	39.22	5.5866
Avg.	40.10	40.10	30.90	37.03	
S.D.	3.4482	2.5822	2.9741		5.2861
			Difference		
A	8.00	3.33	8.00	6.44	2.1999
B	6.00	3.67	4.33	4.67	0.9813
C	0.00	5.00	7.33	4.11	3.0591
D	8.00	6.00	15.67	9.89	4.1663
E	1.00	7.00	6.00	4.67	2.6247
F	5.00	3.00	10.00	6.00	2.9439
G	3.00	7.00	12.33	7.44	3.8233
H	0.00	3.00	14.33	5.78	6.1724
I	7.00	2.67	10.00	6.56	3.0103
J	2.00	-0.33	12.33	4.67	5.5042
Avg.	4.00	4.03	10.03	6.02	
S.D.	3.0332	2.1471	3.4783		4.0842

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
SCORES ON INTEGRATION SCALE					
Ideal					
A	25.00	21.00	22.00	22.67	1.6997
B	19.00	22.33	20.33	20.56	1.3699
C	25.00	20.67	22.33	22.67	1.7847
D	23.00	21.00	22.67	22.22	0.8749
E	22.00	22.00	20.00	21.33	0.9428
F	20.00	24.33	19.67	21.33	2.1257
G	24.00	23.33	23.00	23.44	0.4157
H	22.00	23.67	19.67	21.78	1.6405
I	22.00	23.33	19.67	21.67	1.5154
J	24.00	24.00	20.67	22.89	1.5713
Avg.	22.60	22.57	21.00	22.06	
S.D.	1.9079	1.2828	1.2824		1.6933
Real					
A	21.00	19.00	11.33	17.11	4.1663
B	15.00	22.00	10.67	15.89	4.6693
C	20.00	16.00	10.00	15.33	4.1096
D	21.00	17.33	10.33	16.22	4.4250
E	19.00	19.00	15.00	17.67	1.8856
F	19.00	21.67	13.67	18.11	3.3259
G	21.00	20.00	14.33	18.44	2.9355
H	21.00	21.00	9.33	17.11	5.4997
I	18.00	21.67	14.00	17.89	3.1309
J	25.00	23.67	15.00	21.22	4.4333
Avg.	20.00	20.13	12.37	17.50	
S.D.	2.4495	2.2121	2.1211		4.2789

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Difference		
A	4.00	2.00	10.67	5.56	3.7052
B	4.00	0.33	9.67	4.67	3.8394
C	5.00	4.67	12.33	7.33	3.5382
D	2.00	3.67	12.33	6.00	4.5297
E	3.00	3.00	5.00	3.67	0.9428
F	1.00	2.67	6.00	3.22	2.0787
G	3.00	3.33	8.67	5.00	2.5963
H	1.00	2.67	10.33	4.67	4.0643
I	4.00	1.67	5.67	3.78	1.6405
J	-1.00	0.33	5.67	1.67	2.8803
Avg.	2.60	2.43	8.63	4.56	3.5143
S.D.	1.7436	1.3170	2.7058		
		SCORES ON DEMAND RECONCILIATION SCALE			
			Ideal		
A	21.00	23.33	21.67	22.00	0.9813
B	25.00	23.33	21.00	23.11	1.6405
C	25.00	19.33	22.00	22.11	2.3147
D	22.00	22.00	24.00	22.67	0.9428
E	18.00	23.33	19.67	20.33	2.2278
F	19.00	24.33	22.00	21.78	2.1830
G	22.00	24.33	23.33	23.22	0.9558
H	21.00	24.00	22.67	22.56	1.2273
I	25.00	24.00	21.33	23.44	1.5476
J	24.00	25.00	22.67	23.89	0.9558
Avg.	22.20	23.30	22.03	22.51	1.8634
S.D.	2.4000	1.5308	1.1686		

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Real		
A	16.00	18.33	12.00	15.44	2.6152
B	19.00	22.67	16.00	19.22	2.7262
C	18.00	16.00	20.33	18.11	1.7708
D	17.00	19.67	10.67	15.78	3.7745
E	17.00	19.00	15.00	17.00	1.6330
F	14.00	21.00	13.67	16.22	3.3811
G	19.00	20.33	16.00	18.44	1.8122
H	20.00	23.67	12.67	18.78	4.5731
I	20.00	22.00	17.00	19.67	2.0548
J	24.00	24.00	15.33	21.11	4.0855
Avg.	18.40	20.67	14.87	17.98	
S.D.	2.5768	2.3898	2.6340		3.4822
			Difference		
A	5.00	5.00	9.67	6.56	2.1999
B	6.00	0.67	5.00	3.89	2.3147
C	7.00	3.33	1.67	4.00	2.2278
D	5.00	2.33	13.33	6.89	4.6851
E	1.00	4.33	4.67	3.33	1.6555
F	5.00	3.33	8.33	5.56	2.0787
G	3.00	4.00	7.33	4.78	1.8526
H	1.00	0.33	10.00	3.78	4.4082
I	5.00	2.00	4.33	3.78	1.2862
J	0.00	1.00	7.33	2.78	3.2470
Avg.	3.80	2.63	7.17	4.53	
S.D.	2.2716	1.5380	3.2085		3.1039

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
SCORES ON TOLERANCE OF UNCERTAINTY SCALE					
Ideal					
A	36.00	41.00	36.67	37.89	2.2167
B	49.00	40.00	37.33	42.11	4.9914
C	39.00	33.67	36.67	36.44	2.1830
D	35.00	37.67	43.00	38.56	3.3259
E	36.00	37.00	40.00	37.67	1.6997
F	37.00	38.00	35.00	36.67	1.2472
G	46.00	40.67	40.33	42.33	2.5963
H	38.00	43.67	38.33	40.00	2.5963
I	42.00	44.00	41.67	42.56	1.0304
J	46.00	42.00	40.67	42.89	2.2662
Avg.	40.40	39.77	38.97	39.71	
S.D.	4.7582	3.0480	2.4242		3.5981
Real					
A	35.00	39.00	22.00	32.00	7.2572
B	39.00	37.00	25.33	33.78	6.0267
C	35.00	28.33	22.33	28.56	5.1735
D	33.00	39.67	26.00	32.89	5.5799
E	35.00	34.33	33.33	34.22	0.6849
F	34.00	37.33	30.67	34.00	2.7217
G	39.00	38.00	28.00	35.00	4.9666
H	34.00	41.00	29.33	34.78	4.7945
I	39.00	41.67	30.67	37.11	4.6851
J	41.00	35.33	30.67	35.67	4.2251
Avg.	36.40	37.17	27.83	33.80	
S.D.	2.6533	3.6705	3.6125		5.3931

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Difference		
A	1.00	2.00	14.67	5.89	6.2202
B	10.00	3.00	12.00	8.33	3.8586
C	4.00	5.33	14.33	7.89	4.5893
D	2.00	-2.00	17.00	5.67	8.1786
E	1.00	2.67	6.67	3.44	2.3779
F	3.00	0.67	4.33	2.67	1.5154
G	7.00	2.67	12.33	7.33	3.9534
H	4.00	2.67	9.00	5.22	2.7262
I	3.00	2.33	11.00	5.44	3.9378
J	5.00	6.67	10.00	7.22	2.0787
Avg.	4.00	2.60	11.13	5.91	
S.D.	2.6458	2.2251	3.6246		4.7250
		SCORES ON PREDICTIVE ACCURACY SCALE			
			Ideal		
A	20.00	19.00	20.33	19.78	0.5666
B	23.00	21.33	20.00	21.44	1.2273
C	25.00	19.67	22.00	22.22	2.1830
D	21.00	20.33	20.67	20.67	0.2722
E	21.00	21.00	17.33	19.78	1.7285
F	20.00	22.33	20.00	20.78	1.0999
G	24.00	21.67	20.67	22.11	1.3966
H	21.00	22.33	21.00	21.44	0.6285
I	25.00	19.00	21.00	21.67	2.4944
J	20.00	23.67	22.33	22.00	1.5154
Avg.	22.00	21.03	20.53	21.19	
S.D.	1.9494	1.4640	1.2927		1.7055

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Real		
A	15.00	16.67	12.67	14.78	1.6405
B	17.00	21.33	16.00	18.11	2.3147
C	20.00	17.67	19.67	19.11	1.0304
D	20.00	19.00	10.33	16.44	4.3404
E	19.00	18.67	15.33	17.67	1.6555
F	17.00	19.00	14.33	16.78	1.9116
G	20.00	19.00	13.33	17.44	2.9355
H	21.00	21.67	11.67	18.11	4.5650
I	20.00	17.33	15.67	17.67	1.7847
J	18.00	21.00	15.67	18.22	2.1830
Avg.	18.70	19.13	14.47	17.43	
S.D.	1.7916	1.6275	2.4998		2.9099
			Difference		
A	5.00	2.33	7.67	5.00	2.1773
B	6.00	0.00	4.00	3.33	2.4944
C	5.00	2.00	2.33	3.11	1.3426
D	1.00	1.33	10.33	4.22	4.3234
E	2.00	2.33	2.00	2.11	0.1571
F	3.00	3.33	5.67	4.00	1.1863
G	4.00	2.67	7.33	4.67	1.9626
H	0.00	0.67	9.33	3.33	4.2514
I	5.00	1.67	5.33	4.00	1.6555
J	2.00	2.67	6.67	3.78	2.0608
Avg.	3.30	1.90	6.07	3.76	
S.D.	1.9000	0.9551	2.6238		2.6076

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
		SCORES ON SUPERIOR ORIENTATION SCALE			
			Ideal		
A	46.00	41.33	41.33	42.89	2.1999
B	46.00	45.33	39.67	43.67	2.8415
C	46.00	39.33	43.33	42.89	2.7397
D	46.00	43.00	43.67	44.22	1.2862
E	40.00	44.67	38.00	40.89	2.7933
F	39.00	43.67	39.33	40.67	2.1257
G	48.00	45.00	40.33	44.44	3.1545
H	39.00	42.67	42.33	41.33	1.6555
I	38.00	38.67	38.00	38.22	0.3143
J	39.00	43.00	41.33	41.11	1.6405
Avg.	42.70	42.67	40.73	42.03	
S.D.	3.7696	2.1602	1.9195		2.8923
			Real		
A	39.00	37.00	33.00	36.33	2.4944
B	35.00	44.33	39.33	39.56	3.8136
C	37.00	36.00	41.00	38.00	2.1602
D	40.00	38.33	32.00	36.78	3.4462
E	38.00	38.67	40.67	39.11	1.1331
F	33.00	41.00	25.67	33.22	6.2618
G	40.00	38.67	35.33	38.00	1.9626
H	37.00	41.67	40.33	39.67	1.9626
I	35.00	37.33	38.00	36.78	1.2862
J	38.00	43.00	38.00	39.67	2.3570
Avg.	37.20	39.60	36.33	37.71	
S.D.	2.1817	2.6153	4.6452		3.6012

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Difference		
A	7.00	4.33	8.33	6.56	1.6630
B	11.00	1.00	0.33	4.11	4.8788
C	9.00	3.33	2.33	4.89	2.9355
D	6.00	4.67	11.67	7.44	3.0348
E	2.00	6.00	-2.67	1.78	3.5416
F	6.00	2.67	13.67	7.44	4.6054
G	8.00	6.33	5.00	6.44	1.2273
H	2.00	1.00	2.00	1.67	0.4714
I	3.00	1.33	-0.00	1.44	1.2273
J	1.00	0.00	3.33	1.44	1.3966
Avg.	5.50	3.07	4.40	4.32	3.7786
S.D.	3.2016	2.1124	5.0151		

SCORES ON PERSUASIVENESS SCALE

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Ideal		
A	49.00	40.33	42.00	43.78	3.7548
B	44.00	43.33	37.67	41.67	2.8415
C	49.00	38.67	44.67	44.11	4.2368
D	47.00	42.00	42.67	43.89	2.2167
E	39.00	44.00	37.00	40.00	2.9439
F	38.00	45.00	38.67	40.56	3.1545
G	49.00	46.00	44.67	46.56	1.8122
H	37.00	44.33	39.67	40.33	3.0307
I	48.00	39.67	39.67	42.44	3.9284
J	47.00	47.33	45.33	46.56	0.8749
Avg.	44.70	43.07	41.20	42.99	3.8001
S.D.	4.6271	2.6949	2.9181		

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Real		
A	35.00	35.33	25.33	31.89	4.6375
B	34.00	39.67	33.00	35.56	2.9355
C	39.00	34.67	31.00	34.89	3.2698
D	40.00	29.33	22.00	30.44	7.3904
E	33.00	38.33	36.00	35.78	2.1830
F	30.00	42.00	26.67	32.89	6.5847
G	37.00	42.33	35.00	38.11	3.0952
H	37.00	41.33	22.00	33.44	8.2836
I	34.00	37.33	27.67	33.00	4.0092
J	42.00	44.00	33.00	39.67	4.7842
Avg.	36.10	38.43	29.17	34.57	
S.D.	3.4191	4.2033	4.8927		5.7665
			Difference		
A	14.00	5.00	16.67	11.89	4.9914
B	10.00	3.67	4.67	6.11	2.7800
C	10.00	4.00	13.67	9.22	3.9845
D	7.00	12.67	20.67	13.44	5.6064
E	6.00	5.67	1.00	4.22	2.2825
F	8.00	3.00	12.00	7.67	3.6818
G	12.00	3.67	9.67	8.44	3.5101
H	0.00	3.00	17.67	6.89	7.7188
I	14.00	2.33	12.00	9.44	5.0942
J	5.00	3.33	12.33	6.89	3.9095
Avg.	8.60	4.63	12.03	8.42	
S.D.	4.1280	2.8341	5.5866		5.2823

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
SCORES ON TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM SCALE					
			Ideal		
A	45.00	36.67	40.33	40.67	3.4102
B	40.00	40.00	38.33	39.44	0.7857
C	49.00	40.67	40.67	43.44	3.9284
D	34.00	35.00	42.33	37.11	3.7152
E	39.00	41.33	44.67	41.67	2.3254
F	39.00	40.67	40.33	40.00	0.7201
G	48.00	44.33	42.00	44.78	2.4696
H	45.00	41.33	41.00	42.44	1.8122
I	43.00	44.67	45.33	44.33	0.9813
J	41.00	41.00	44.00	42.00	1.4142
Avg.	42.30	40.57	41.90	41.59	
S.D.	4.3600	2.8090	2.0070		3.3140
			Real		
A	45.00	36.67	24.33	35.33	8.4896
B	39.00	40.67	29.00	36.22	5.1520
C	44.00	26.33	17.33	29.22	11.0766
D	38.00	32.67	23.67	31.44	5.9150
E	40.00	37.67	30.67	36.11	3.9659
F	37.00	41.00	36.67	38.22	1.9689
G	48.00	42.33	32.33	40.89	6.4769
H	40.00	41.00	27.33	36.11	6.2202
I	40.00	43.00	20.00	34.33	10.2089
J	34.00	42.67	33.67	36.78	4.1663
Avg.	40.50	38.40	27.50	35.47	
S.D.	3.9051	5.0548	5.8486		7.5810

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Difference		
A	0.00	0.00	16.00	5.33	7.5425
B	1.00	-0.67	9.33	3.22	4.3744
C	5.00	14.33	23.33	14.22	7.4850
D	-4.00	2.33	18.67	5.67	9.5491
E	-1.00	3.67	14.00	5.56	6.2677
F	2.00	-0.33	3.67	1.78	1.6405
G	0.00	2.00	9.67	3.89	4.1663
H	5.00	0.33	13.67	6.33	5.5244
I	3.00	1.67	25.33	10.00	10.8560
J	7.00	-1.67	10.33	5.22	5.0577
Avg.	1.80	2.17	14.40	6.12	
S.D.	3.1241	4.3314	6.3295		7.5594
		SCORES ON PRODUCTION EMPHASIS SCALE			
			Ideal		
A	36.00	33.00	35.67	34.89	1.3426
B	37.00	39.33	31.67	36.00	3.2088
C	47.00	37.00	39.67	41.22	4.2281
D	40.00	35.67	36.67	37.44	1.8526
E	32.00	38.33	28.67	33.00	4.0092
F	31.00	40.00	34.67	35.22	3.6952
G	39.00	40.00	35.67	38.22	1.8526
H	38.00	38.67	33.33	36.67	2.3727
I	36.00	35.00	29.67	33.56	2.7800
J	32.00	37.67	36.00	35.22	2.3779
Avg.	36.80	37.47	34.17	36.14	
S.D.	4.4900	2.1919	3.1946		3.7085

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Real		
A	30.00	30.67	31.33	30.67	0.5443
B	29.00	37.33	31.00	32.44	3.5521
C	41.00	36.67	29.67	35.78	4.6693
D	34.00	31.33	20.67	28.67	5.7607
E	31.00	33.33	27.67	30.67	2.3254
F	30.00	36.00	26.00	30.67	4.1096
G	37.00	33.00	28.00	32.67	3.6818
H	37.00	34.67	26.67	32.78	4.4250
I	33.00	36.00	33.00	34.00	1.4142
J	33.00	36.33	28.33	32.56	3.2811
Avg.	33.50	34.53	28.23	32.09	
S.D.	3.6401	2.2121	3.2730		4.1508
			Difference		
A	6.00	2.33	4.33	4.22	1.4990
B	8.00	2.00	0.67	3.56	3.1895
C	6.00	0.33	10.00	5.44	3.9659
D	6.00	4.33	16.00	8.78	5.1520
E	1.00	5.00	1.00	2.33	1.8856
F	1.00	4.00	8.67	4.56	3.1545
G	2.00	7.00	7.67	5.56	2.5288
H	1.00	4.00	6.67	3.89	2.3147
I	3.00	-1.00	-3.33	-0.44	2.6152
J	-1.00	1.33	7.67	2.67	3.6616
Avg.	3.30	2.93	5.93	4.06	
S.D.	2.8302	2.2598	5.2192		3.9035

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
SCORES ON REPRESENTATION SCALE					
Ideal					
A	20.00	19.67	21.33	20.33	0.7201
B	13.00	20.67	17.33	17.00	3.1388
C	21.00	19.67	20.00	20.22	0.5666
D	24.00	19.00	20.33	21.11	2.1140
E	21.00	21.67	18.67	20.44	1.2862
F	17.00	21.33	17.00	18.44	2.0428
G	25.00	21.67	19.33	22.00	2.3254
H	18.00	22.00	18.67	19.56	1.7498
I	20.00	21.33	15.33	18.89	2.5724
J	21.00	20.67	21.00	20.89	0.1571
Avg.	20.00	20.77	18.90	19.89	
S.D.	3.2558	0.9667	1.8077		2.3497
Real					
A	20.00	17.67	19.33	19.00	0.9813
B	14.00	19.33	20.00	17.78	2.6851
C	20.00	19.00	10.33	16.44	4.3404
D	22.00	16.33	14.33	17.56	3.2470
E	19.00	18.00	20.00	19.00	0.8165
F	17.00	20.00	14.00	17.00	2.4495
G	21.00	20.67	17.00	19.56	1.8122
H	18.00	21.67	15.00	18.22	2.7262
I	20.00	20.67	16.33	19.00	1.9052
J	21.00	20.33	16.00	19.11	2.2167
Avg.	19.20	19.37	16.23	18.27	
S.D.	2.2271	1.5524	2.8908		2.7045

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Administrators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Representatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Difference		
A	0.00	2.00	2.00	1.33	0.9428
B	-1.00	1.33	-2.67	-0.78	1.6405
C	1.00	0.67	9.67	3.78	4.1663
D	2.00	2.67	6.00	3.56	1.7498
E	2.00	3.67	-1.33	1.44	2.0787
F	0.00	1.33	3.00	1.44	1.2273
G	4.00	1.00	2.33	2.44	1.2273
H	0.00	0.33	3.67	1.33	1.6555
I	0.00	0.67	-1.00	-0.11	0.6849
J	0.00	0.33	5.00	1.78	2.2825
Avg.	0.80	1.40	2.67	1.62	
S.D.	1.4000	1.0306	3.5371		2.4048
		SCORES ON ROLE ASSUMPTION SCALE			
			Ideal		
A	39.00	43.00	42.67	41.56	1.8122
B	44.00	45.67	37.33	42.33	3.6004
C	46.00	40.67	38.67	41.78	3.0952
D	42.00	46.00	44.33	44.11	1.6405
E	41.00	44.33	40.33	41.89	1.7498
F	41.00	45.00	38.33	41.44	2.7397
G	41.00	46.33	36.67	41.33	3.9534
H	38.00	47.33	43.00	42.78	3.8136
I	40.00	43.00	39.67	40.89	1.4990
J	48.00	49.00	40.33	45.78	3.8714
Avg.	42.00	45.03	40.13	42.39	
S.D.	2.9665	2.2777	2.4046		3.2661

Table 4 (Continued)

District	Adminis-trators	School Board Members	Teachers' Union Repre-sentatives	Average Scores (3 groups)	Standard Deviation
			Real		
A	31.00	33.67	32.33	32.33	1.0887
B	33.00	42.67	37.00	37.56	3.9659
C	42.00	41.67	43.67	42.44	0.8749
D	40.00	40.00	25.67	35.22	6.7568
E	32.00	37.67	36.67	35.44	2.4696
F	35.00	36.67	25.00	32.22	5.1520
G	37.00	38.00	31.67	35.56	2.7800
H	37.00	42.67	29.33	36.33	5.4637
I	37.00	38.33	30.33	35.22	3.4996
J	47.00	46.67	29.00	40.89	8.4078
Avg.	37.10	39.80	32.07	36.32	
S.D.	4.6357	3.5283	5.3951		5.5933
			Difference		
A	8.00	9.33	10.33	9.22	0.9558
B	11.00	3.00	0.33	4.78	4.5325
C	4.00	-1.00	-5.00	-0.67	3.6818
D	2.00	6.00	18.67	8.89	7.1042
E	9.00	6.67	3.67	6.44	2.1830
F	6.00	8.33	13.33	9.22	3.0591
G	4.00	8.33	5.00	5.78	1.8526
H	1.00	4.67	13.67	6.44	5.3217
I	3.00	4.67	9.33	5.67	2.6805
J	1.00	2.33	11.33	4.89	4.5883
Avg.	4.90	5.23	8.07	6.07	
S.D.	3.3000	3.0260	6.6946		4.8621

Table 5. One hundred twenty triples of difference scores.

```
The triples occur as follows (most diff. first in parens.):


          ORDER (T,B,A) OCCURS 44 TIMES.
          ORDER (T,A,B) OCCURS 43 TIMES.
          ORDER (A,B,T) OCCURS 11 TIMES.
          ORDER (A,T,B) OCCURS 11 TIMES.
          ORDER (B,A,T) OCCURS  5 TIMES.
          ORDER (B,T,A) OCCURS  4 TIMES.
          ORDER (A=T,B) OCCURS  1 TIME.
          ORDER (T,A=B) OCCURS  1 TIME.

IN THESE DATA, ADMINISTRATOR DIFFERENCES EXCEED
     BOARD DIFFERENCES 66 TIMES.

     THEY DIFFER 119 TIMES; THE PROPORTION = 0.5546.

IN THESE DATA, ADMINISTRATOR DIFFERENCES EXCEED
     TEACHER DIFFERENCES 27 TIMES.

     THEY DIFFER 119 TIMES; THE PROPORTION = 0.2269.

IN THESE DATA, BOARD DIFFERENCES EXCEED TEACHER
     DIFFERENCES 20 TIMES.

     THEY DIFFER 120 TIMES; THE PROPORTION = 0.1667.
```

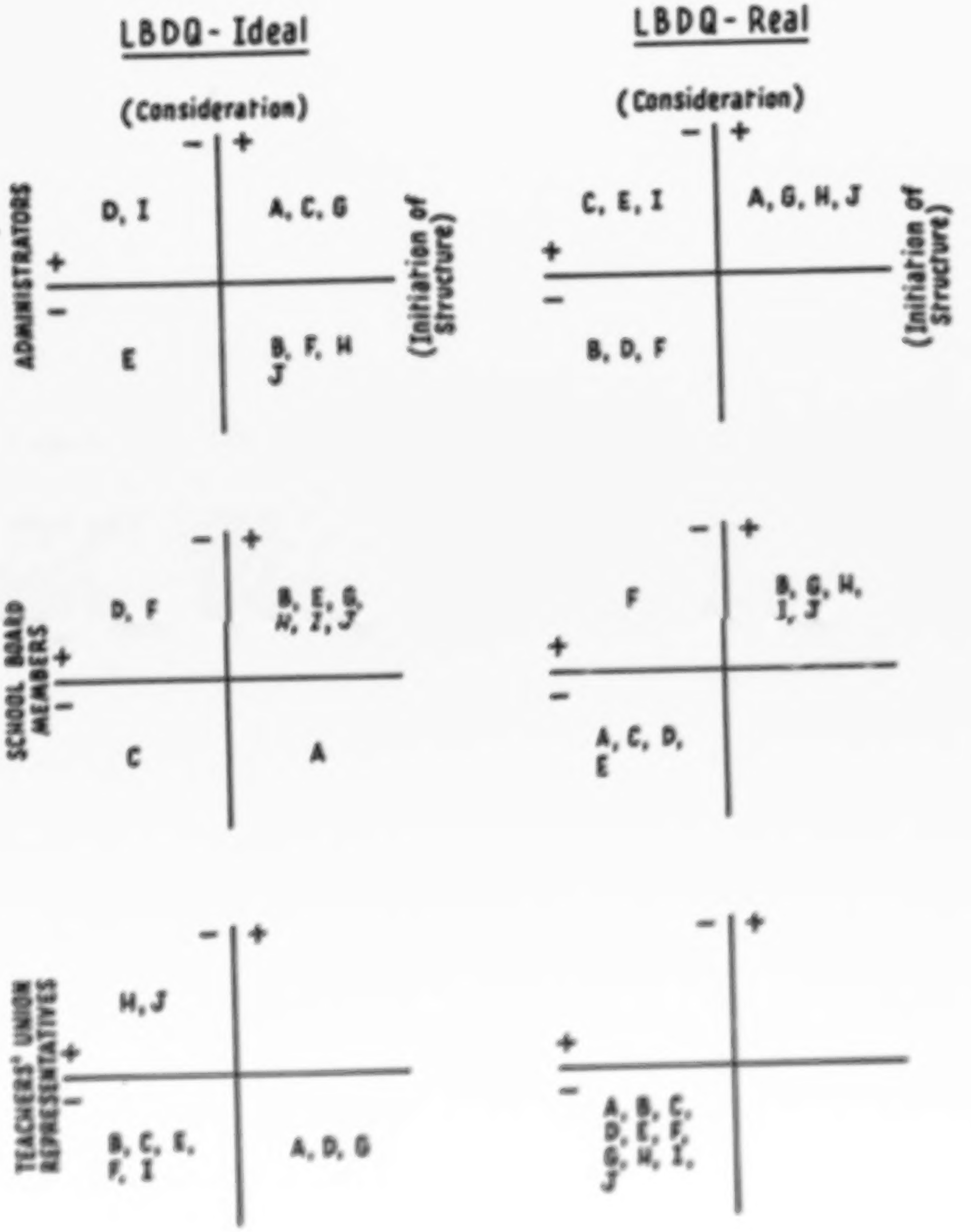
Table 6. Analysis of variance: F distribution.[a]

Dimension of Leader Behavior	F Statistic for:	
	Ideal Behavior	Real Behavior
Consideration	1.113	33.323*
Initiation of structure	7.004*	27.798*
Integration	3.257	34.675*
Demand reconciliation	1.351	11.959*
Tolerance of uncertainty	0.368	21.598*
Predictive accuracy	1.971	14.824*
Superior orientation	1.517	2.331
Persuasiveness	2.227	11.769*
Tolerance of freedom	0.711	17.532*
Production emphasis	2.338	10.682*
Representation	1.606	5.336
Role assumption	8.353*	6.597*

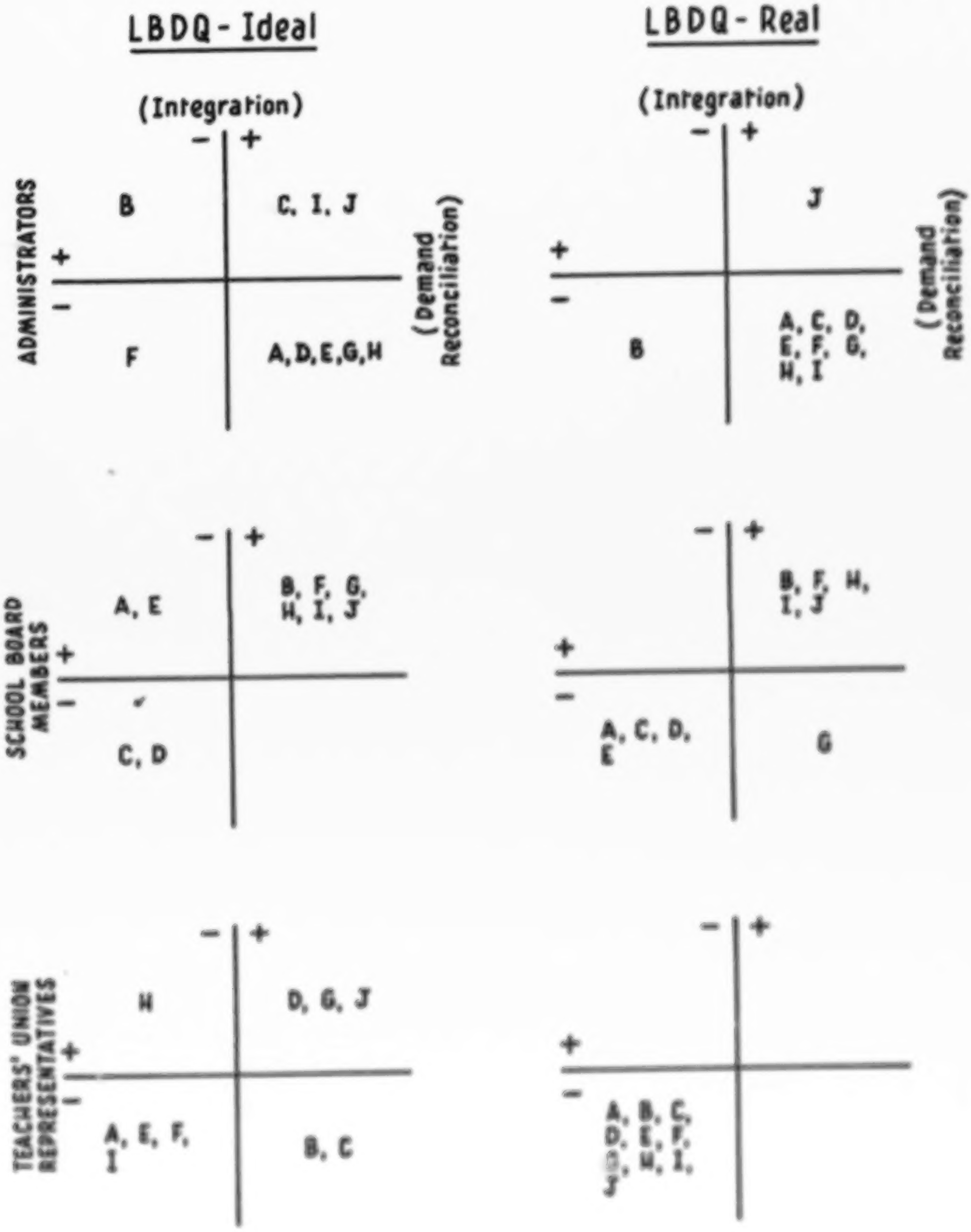
[a] At .05 level, F_2, 27 > 3.35; at .01 level, F_2, 27 > 5.49.

* Significant.

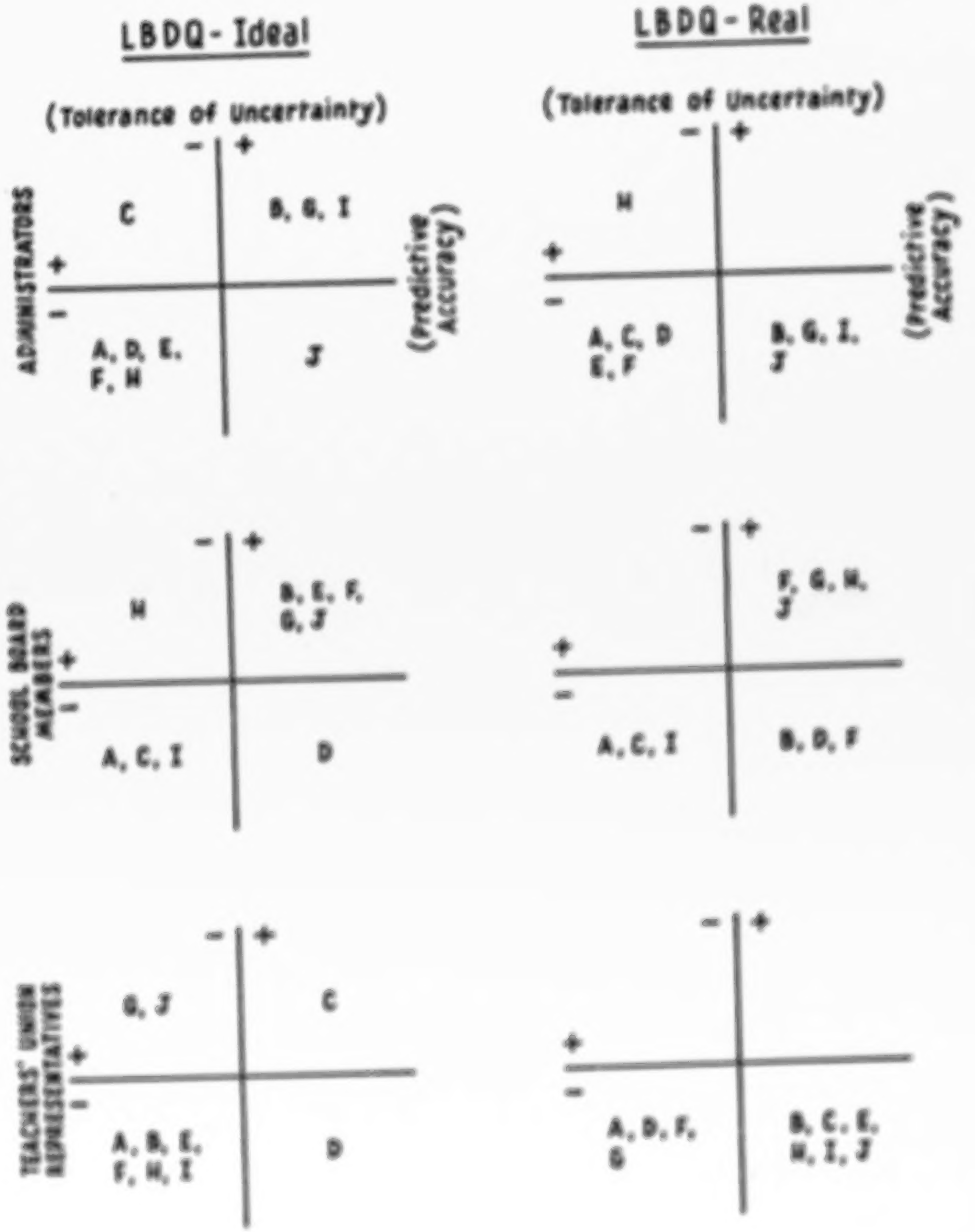
COMPARISON OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE DIMENSIONS CONSIDERATION AND INITIATION OF STRUCTURE


LBDQ- Ideal
LBDQ- Real
(Consideration)
(Consideration)
- +
+ -
(Initiation of Structure)
ADMINISTRATORS
D, I
A, C, G
E
B, F, H J
C, E, I
A, G, H, J
B, D, F
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
D, F
B, E, G, H, I, J
C
A
F
B, G, H, I, J
A, C, D, E
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES
H, J
B, C, E, F, I
A, D, G
A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J

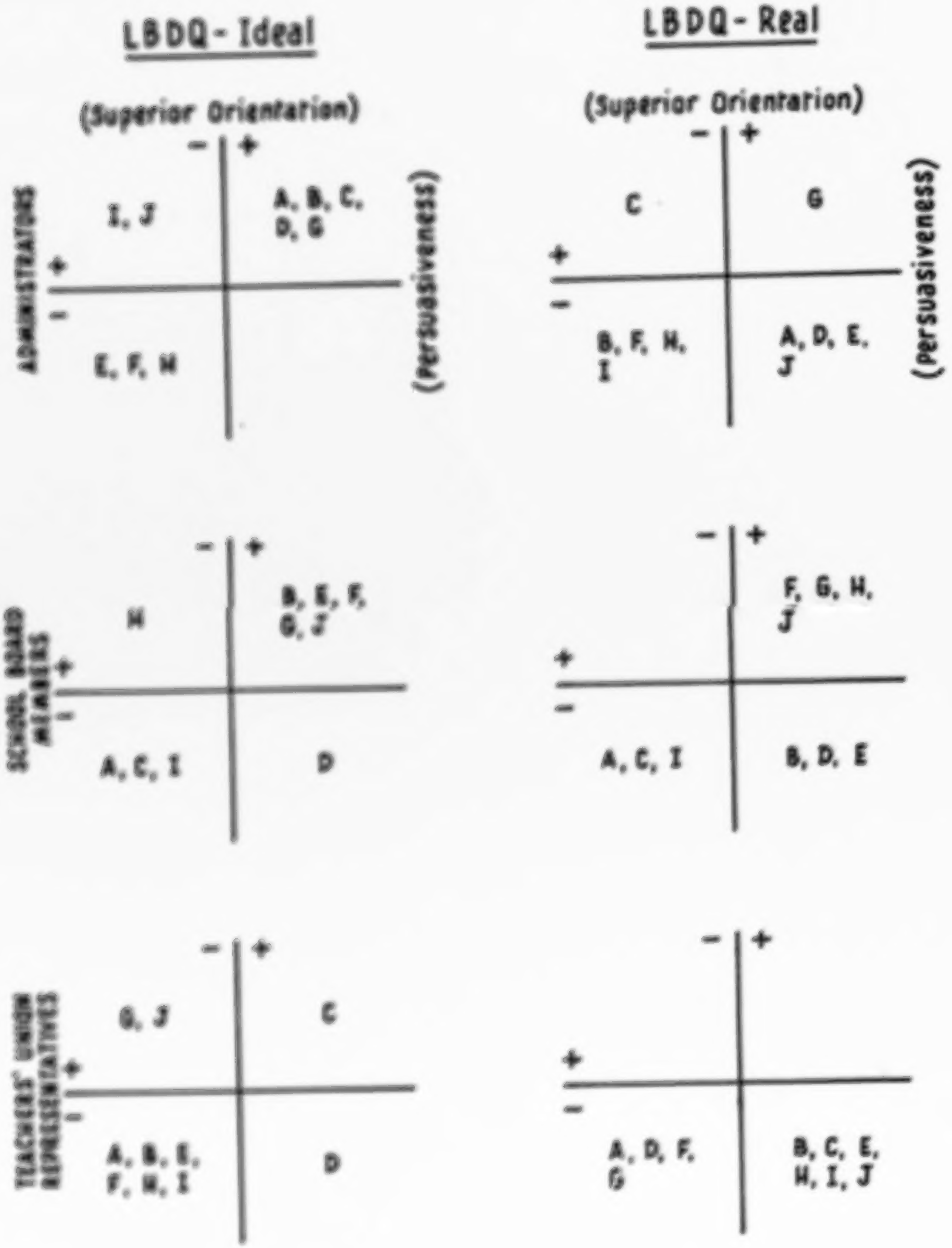
COMPARISON OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE DIMENSIONS INTEGRATION AND DEMAND RECONCILIATION


LBDQ - Ideal
LBDQ - Real
(Integration)
(Integration)
(Demand Reconciliation)
(Demand Reconciliation)
ADMINISTRATORS
B
C, I, J
F
A, D, E, G, H
J
B
A, C, D, E, F, G, H, I
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
A, E
B, F, G, H, I, J
C, D
B, F, H, I, J
A, C, D, E
G
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES
H
D, G, J
A, E, F, I
B, C
A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J
+
−

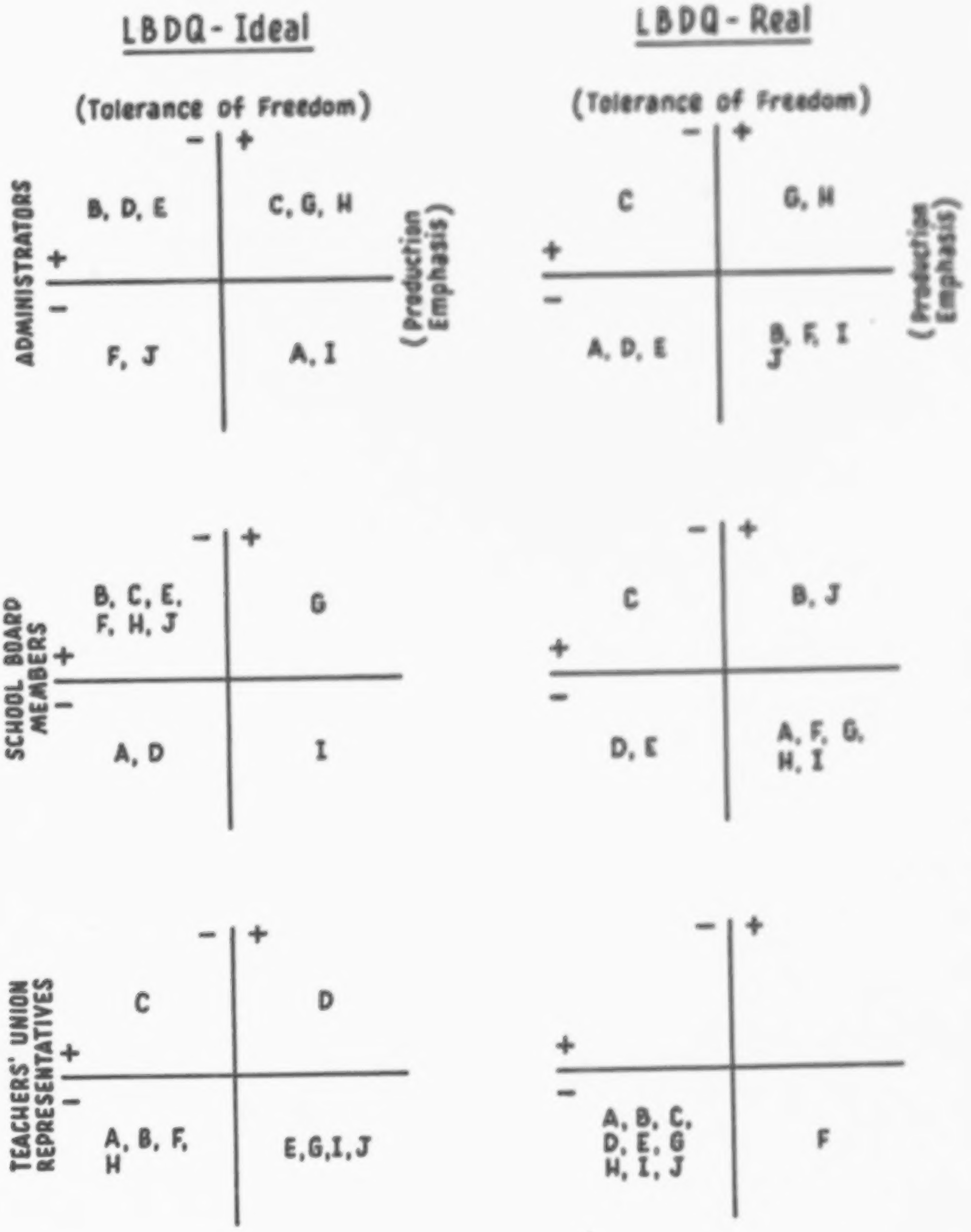
COMPARISON OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE DIMENSIONS TOLERANCE OF UNCERTAINTY AND PREDICTIVE ACCURACY


LBDQ-Ideal
LBDQ-Real
(Tolerance of Uncertainty)
(Tolerance of Uncertainty)
ADMINISTRATORS
(Predictive Accuracy)
C
B, G, I
A, D, E, F, H
J
H
A, C, D E, F
B, G, I, J
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
H
B, E, F, G, J
A, C, I
D
E, G, H, J
A, C, I
B, D, F
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES
G, J
C
A, B, E, F, H, I
D
A, D, F, G
B, C, E, H, I, J
−
+

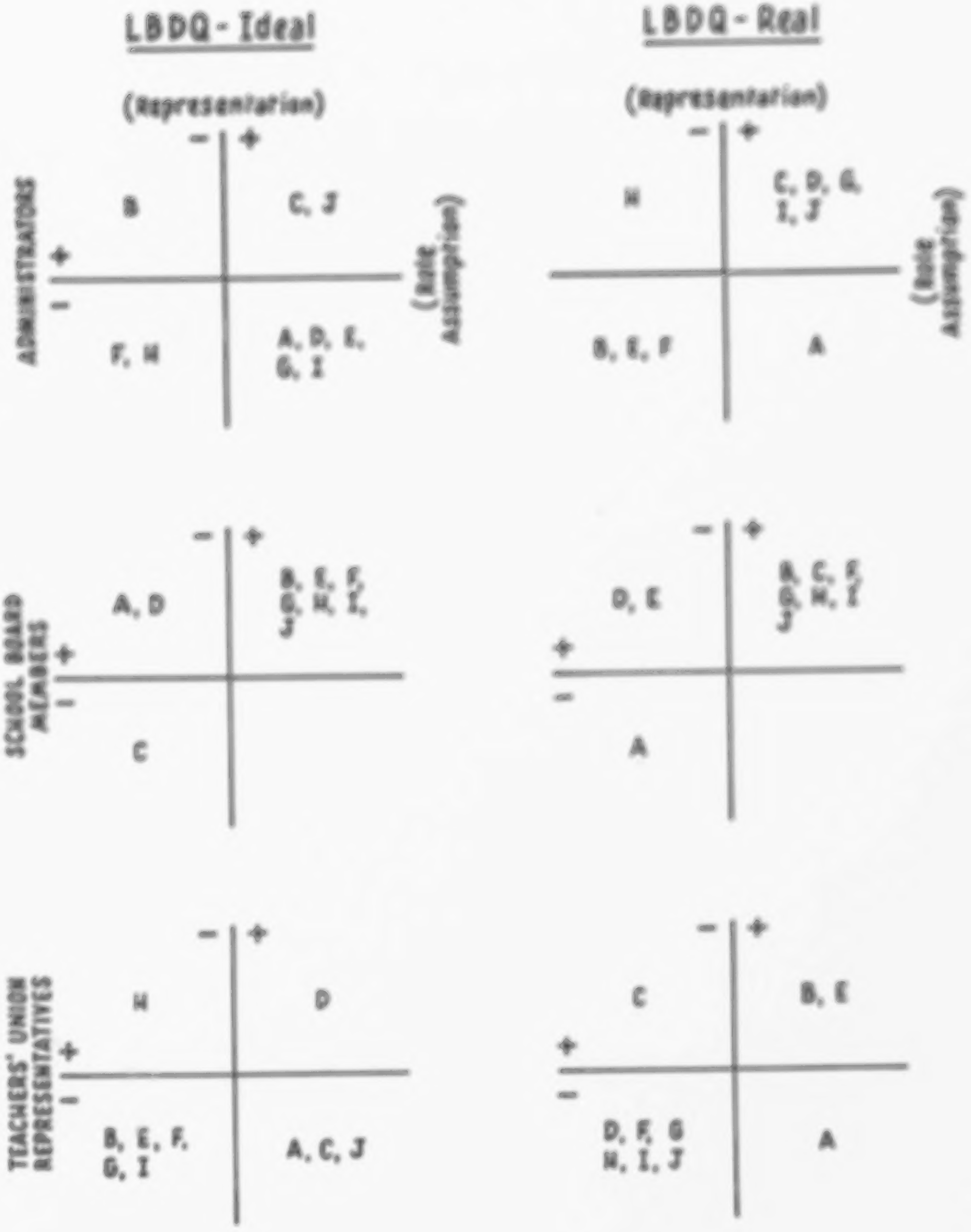
COMPARISON OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE DIMENSIONS SUPERIOR ORIENTATION AND PERSUASIVENESS


LBDQ - Ideal
LBDQ - Real
(Superior Orientation)
(Superior Orientation)
(Persuasiveness)
(Persuasiveness)
ADMINISTRATORS
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES
− +
+
−
I, J
A, B, C, D, G
E, F, H
C
G
B, F, H, I
A, D, E, J
H
B, E, F, G, J
A, C, I
D
F, G, H, J
A, C, I
B, D, E
G, J
C
A, B, E, F, H, I
D
A, D, F, G
B, C, E, H, I, J

COMPARISON OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE DIMENSIONS TOLERANCE OF FREEDOM AND PRODUCTION EMPHASIS


LBDQ - Ideal
LBDQ - Real
(Tolerance of Freedom)
(Tolerance of Freedom)
(Production Emphasis)
(Production Emphasis)
ADMINISTRATORS
− +
+ −
B, D, E
C, G, H
F, J
A, I
C
G, H
A, D, E
B, F, I
J
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
B, C, E,
F, H, J
G
A, D
I
C
B, J
D, E
A, F, G,
H, I
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES
C
D
A, B, F,
H
E,G,I,J
A, B, C,
D, E, G
H, I, J
F

COMPARISON OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE DIMENSIONS REPRESENTATION AND ROLE ASSUMPTION


LBDQ - Ideal
LBDQ - Real
(Representation)
(Role Assumption)
ADMINISTRATORS
+
−
B
C, J
F, H
A, D, E, G, I
H
C, D, G, I, J
B, E, F
A
SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS
A, D
B, E, F, G, H, I, J
C
D, E
B, C, F, G, H, I, J
A
TEACHERS' UNION REPRESENTATIVES
H
D
B, E, F, G, I
A, C, J
C
B, E
D, F, G, H, I, J
A